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VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1938

Peace Moods and War Drums

JULIAN ARONSON

Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, New York

At the close of the last war, with the first flush of a great illusion and the sad reckoning of the costs of conflict, the good people of all the nations took a deep breath and decided to invest in a League of Nations to prevent another catastrophe. They were heartened by the League's action when peaceful Finland and pacific Sweden settled their dispute over the Aaland Islands without calling out the marines. They pointed with pride to the way Greece was made to pay an indemnity for her brutal invasion of Bulgaria. They referred to the Corfu incident to prove the effectiveness of the League in curbing the ferocity of a large power as well as a small one. Reason was king and Grotius was on the throne.

It was a brief dynasty. A Japanese army appeared in Manchuria in 1931 and defying all established treaties to which it was a party raped part of a peaceful nation while the world busied itself making cartoons to frighten it off. The League was in a quandary. No formal declaration of war had been announced. It called on its chief props, England and France, for some action but since they acted indifferently nothing remained to be done except appoint a committee to see if the Japanese had really broken their treaty obligations and invaded poor China. The only power that took an independent stand on the matter was the United States, a country that had furnished the paper and refreshments for the mutilated Nine Power Pact. The United States, oddly enough, was not even a member of the League of Nations.

The failure of France and England to support Mr. Stimson's doctrine was one of the most pathetic moments in the short history of the League. After that, the skies turned black and they have been so ever since.

The number of insults written on the door of the League of Nations after the Manchurian affair ran far ahead of the committees. The gesture of sending a titled group to verify the obvious fact of aggression had to be dispensed with. The report would only emphasize the incapacity of the League in dealing with transgressors. First Germany rode roughshod over the Covenant. No action. Then Mussolini trotted out his legions into the Abyssinian hinterlands, yelled revenge for Adowa, and then trotted some of them back into Spain to display their speed at Brihuega. Still no action. Still no League action. To cap the moribundity of the League, the little yellow people have decided to execute another turn in China to complete the chastisement of the Chinese nationalists. The League's inability to meet any crisis with prompt dispatch has been so patent that rumors for converting its magnificent home into an international casino, self-liquidating, have been current in the more facetious fascist press.

The way the ill winds were blowing became apparent even before the Manchurian invasion. Every disarmament conference, from the partially successful Washington Conference of 1922 to the London Naval Conference of 1930, showed the same hard-boiled cynicism common before the war. The anarchy of nations was just as prevalent. The spirit

of greed and suspicion corrupted each assembly into a hypocritical debating society symbolized by a toothbrush smile in front and a hard clasped knife in back. The complete collapse of the Geneva Disarmament Conference in 1933 had already been presaged by the failure of concerted action in the Manchurian affair.

With the rapid disappearance of the League's prestige the peace societies redoubled their efforts to save something for posterity. They seemed to realize that if the official governments had no faith in their offspring, the general public must be re-inspired to demand the real functioning of the League. Oxford pledges preceded and followed Lord Robert Cecil's ten million signatures against war. The Archbishop of Canterbury edited an anti-war symposium. The Y.M.C.A. sent out secretaries scattering the good seeds of peace wherever a quorum gathered. Beverly Nichols and A. A. Milne wrote impassioned texts denouncing war. World Peaceways launched a refined advertising campaign bringing the frightfulness of war home artistically to the higher-income brackets. And even Francis Lederer started an organization to debunk war of its silly trappings and military marches. But all of these worthy efforts vanished into thin air when set against a few morning headlines describing events in Spain and China or some newsreel scenes showing tiny tots putting on gas masks for Il Duce.

Concurrent with this campaign to save peace there appeared a new school of soothsayers with a completely different angle of approach to the problem of future peace. Leagues advocating coöperation among nations are not new. The Holy Alliance, to take one example, was inspired by the same post-war period of disillusionment as followed the World War. Peace propaganda follows the cessation of war like the pestilence and increased taxation. The new school was original. It developed a technical argument for ending militarism. The reasoning ran as follows: War in the past was fought at battle fronts removed from the large centers of population. While thousands fought, millions stayed behind enjoying the vicarious thrills of the campaign. The rich speculated and got richer. The old and decrepit remained behind to obtain choice jobs with a premium attached to them. The military corps of officials came into their own. The higher you were in the military hierarchy the better your chances to die in bed and the greater the opportunities for advancement. The pretty girl didn't mind whooping it up a bit to sell a government bond. Hers was the excitement of war and none of its risks. And the politician ensconced in his swivel chair held the reins of power in the public spotlight. All of these groups got something out of war, determined war policy, and gave commands to the men at the front.

Now, says the war-will-defeat-itself school of peace-thinking, the nature of combat has been revolutionized by the airplane. There is no longer such a thing as a non-combatant population. Every city, every factory is a target for the enemy's bombing squadron. The first politician who opens his mouth to say something about how sweet and proper it is to die for one's country will get a mouthful of Lewisite showered down upon him. And the young lady who egged her boy-friend into joining the army will have poetic justice meted out to her by cracking a tibia in her first rush to escape from a strafing pursuit plane. Besides, governments will shudder at the thought of arming the proletariat who may, God only knows, face about and shoot their commanders in the name of material dialectic. War profiteers, instead of floating about on their bloated incomes while the cadavers in no-mans-land are being nibbled upon by clever rats, will be chased out of their peaceful slumber into the nearest dank refuge by the warning sirens. All these possibilities, says the war-will-defeat-itself school of peace-thinking, will ultimately compel nations to dispense with medieval war. The consequences of belligerency will be too frightful for words. At this crucial moment the survival instinct will step in and write the peace terms.

The school of instinct was gaining in popularity among the jaded military experts of the last war. Foch himself remarked shortly before his death that "... the potentialities of aircraft on a large scale are almost incalculable, but it is clear that such attack, owing to its crushing moral effect on a nation, may impress public opinion to the point of disarming the Government and thus become decisive." So far, this prophecy has not been borne out. The bombardment of civilian populations in Loyalist Spain has produced the contrary results. The havoc has been terrible, but in no way has it succeeded in paralyzing the action of the defenders. The determination to win increases the closer you get to the front. Every bombed home stands as a gaunt reminder of the enemy's terror. Better death than the mooted mercy of the attackers. War can dispense with its profiteers without slackening down in the least. This applies not only in Spain, where the people are fighting to defend their homes from the fascist international, but to all countries with propaganda ministries. The potentialities of government propaganda in getting people to fight is just as incalculable as Foch's large-scale aircraft attack.

A dictator will sacrifice the nation's last red cent for a victory. Mussolini will probably alienate capital as well as labor by his ten per cent capital levy. He will play the socialist's game to hold the masses in check. The appeal to self-sacrifice for the sake of national honor will cut across class lines when the

time comes and the argument, played up well by radio and newspaper, will rouse the masses as much as the chain sloughing of the *Communist Manifesto*.

The idea of universal peace being ushered in by a world soviet strikes a snag in the obvious nationalism now being preached in the U.S.S.R. Stalin has virtually liquidated the Third International in the face of fascism and has fallen back on the time-proven effectiveness of patriotism in rallying a nation to resistance. The defense of the fatherland takes precedence over the world union of soviets. Presumably, national orthodoxy takes prece-

dence over the Marxian contempt for nationalism. Stalin compromised not because he is a nationalist (being a Georgian he probably feels the opposite), but because his past way of thinking bumped headlong into a fact and the fact refused to give way. Like Lenin in 1921, he met the problem by giving in to the fact. The world soviet may yet bring peace. It is significant that the two outstanding institutions of internationalism, the League of Nations for the capitalistic countries and the Third International for the proletariat, are on the verge of bankruptcy.

We are still where we were in 1914.

The United States Constitution in the Schoolbooks of the Past

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
New York University

One day, as the story goes, just after the Constitutional Convention of 1787 had completed its work, a lady stopped Benjamin Franklin on the street to ask, "Well, doctor, what have we got, a republic or a monarchy?" "A republic," was his reply—adding in characteristic fashion, "if you can keep it."

Such fears on the part of the framers of the Constitution as to the ultimate outcome of their labors were more than justified in those early days. But now a century and a half have passed and in spite of the crises which this nation has faced in that long interval, the republican form of government established by the Constitution still survives and is apparently functioning even more effectively in a population of 120,000,000 than it did among a people one-fortieth of that number.

It is of more than passing interest to the rank and file of Americans today who identify the future progress of their country with the maintenance of its political institutions, to ask themselves what has been the contribution of the schools to this result, and particularly the spread of popular education. Recent agitation with reference to what appear to many to be radical changes in the federal government have given rise to the same question which was in Franklin's mind as to how safe is our republican form of government in the hands of the people to whom it was entrusted a century and a half ago.

In our day the public schools are constantly being cited by ardent patriots as the bulwark of democracy. But they have not always been so as is revealed by an examination of the schoolbooks of the past. For many

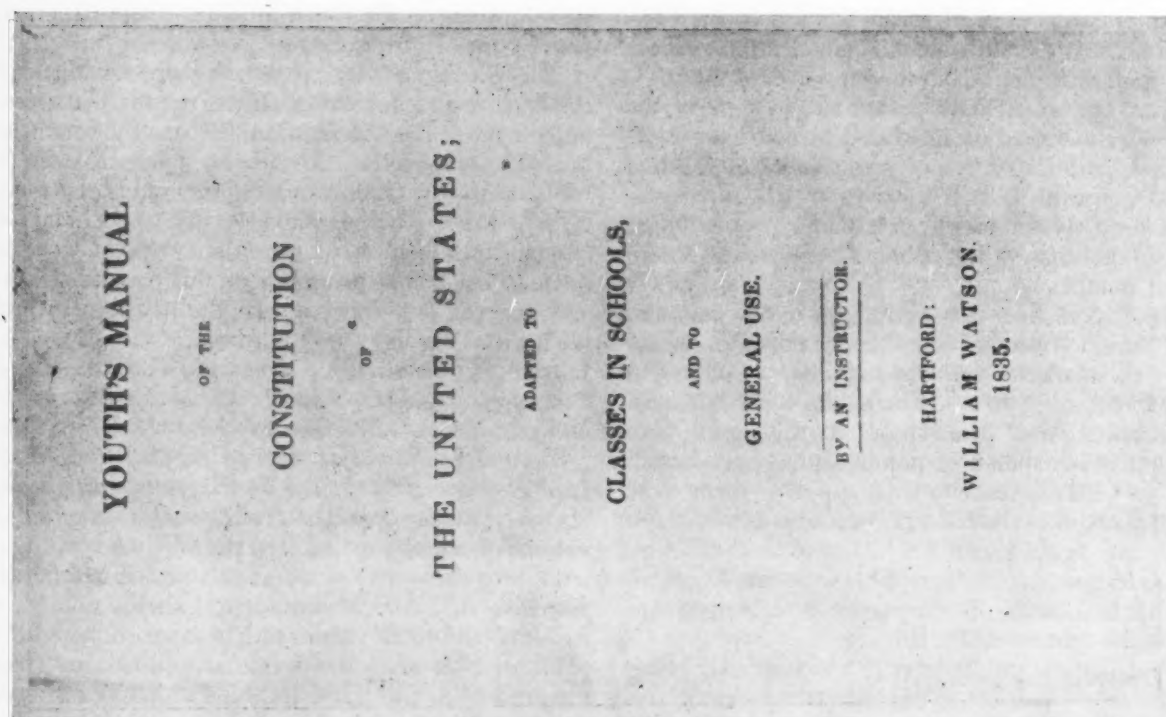
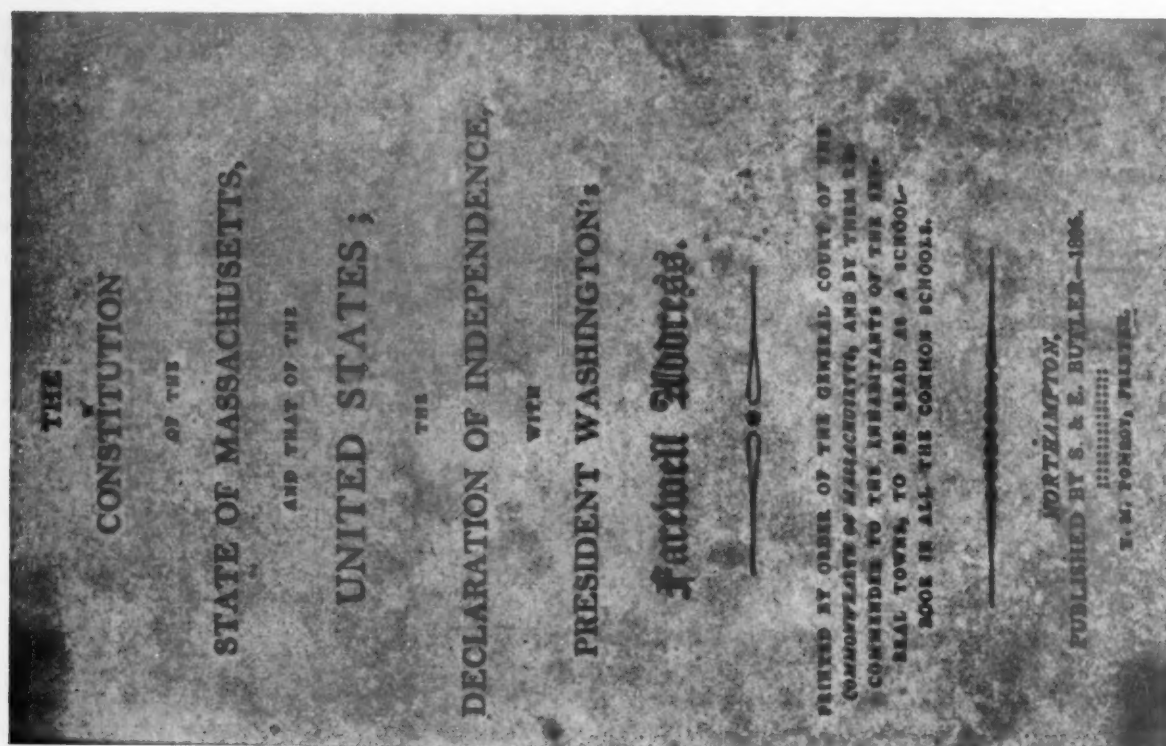
years little dependence seems to have been placed upon the school, public or private, for a knowledge of our government and an understanding of its functions and operations.

It was the advent of Jacksonian democracy that seems to have directed attention to the need for a serious study of the Constitution and the American framework of government.

The preceding fifty years and more saw little in the way of an effort to reach the masses with some knowledge of the Constitution. Perhaps the very newness of the government and the agitation over its ratification were fresh enough in the minds of Americans to make it appear unnecessary to include any special consideration of the framework of government in the school programs of this period.

Whatever was done, was in the nature of a prophylactic. Thus in 1797, alarmed by the inroads of Jeffersonian democracy, a staunch federalist wrote: *A Plain Political Catechism Intended for Use in the United States of America, wherein the Great Principles of Liberty and of the Federal Constitution are Laid Down and Explained by Way of Question and Answer, Made Level to the Lowest Capacities*, a volume of about one hundred pages.

During these fifty years, as was perhaps to be expected, a state like Massachusetts, always noted for its contributions to public education, encouraged the publication of such books as that which came from the press of S. and E. Butler, Northampton and bore the title: *The Constitution of the State of Massachusetts, and that of the United States; the Declaration*



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BY J. OLNEY, A. M.
Author of a Geography and Atlas, National Preceptor, Easy Reader, Child's Manual, &c.

NEW-HAVEN:
PUBLISHED BY DUBBIE & PECK.
1837.

FRONTISPICE AND TITLE PAGE OF A CENTURY OLD TEXTBOOK IN AMERICAN HISTORY. EXACT SIZE.

of Independence, with President Washington's Farewell Address. Printed by Order of the General Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and by them Recommended to the Inhabitants of the Several Towns, to be Read as a Schoolbook in all the Common Schools. This little volume, bound in boards was published in 1806, just two years after the adoption of the twelfth amendment while Jefferson occupied the White House. No comments or questions form a part of the volume.

It was about a hundred years ago that the growing interest in democracy and in public education gave rise to a number of textbooks on the Constitution and the introduction of that document in the schools. A certain amount of state zeal on behalf of its own government and the federal Constitution, seems to have been behind the appearance of several of the schoolbooks of that period. It will be remembered

that the state of Massachusetts in authorizing the printing of the federal Constitution in the opening years of the nineteenth century gave her own fundamental law first place.

Lawyers, in particular, seem to have been zealous for a better understanding of the fundamental laws, or were regarded as the best exponents of them. There was, for example, Alexander Maitland of the county of Chester, Pennsylvania, who wrote a *Political Instructor and Guide to Knowledge, Being a Compendium of Political Information Designed for the use of Schools* (1829). Quoting George Washington on the title page, "Promote then as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, the people should be enlightened," the author points out in his preface that he has been led to undertake "the extraction and

arrangement of the present work . . . as at present there is *no compilation of this kind in the common schools*,"¹ and that it therefore might be "very interesting" to the "patriotic citizens of Pennsylvania."

In the second edition (1833) the *Instructor* contains at least two documents of special interest to the citizens of Pennsylvania, the charter granted to William Penn and the Constitution of Pennsylvania, besides the full text of the Articles of Confederation, Washington's "Valedictory Address" (as he characterizes it), his resignation of his commission and the answer of Congress. The echoes of the nullification struggle are to be seen in his incorporation of South Carolina's address to the people of the United States, Andrew Jackson's proclamation, and speeches by Calhoun and Webster. It is in the company of documents such as these that the text of the United States Constitution appears occupying altogether barely twenty-one pages of a 348 page textbook. Seven pages of subscribers' names arranged by counties, with almost seventy per cent of them from the author's own county are thought worthy of occupying the closing pages of the volume. They include several with "Esq.," following their names, probably lawyers like the writer, with here and there an "M.D.," and here and there a "Rev.," an "A.M.," a "Col.," and "Major." Perhaps they were intended to lend respectability to the undertaking.

So, too, Andrew W. Young, a lawyer and a citizen of New York state tried his hand at a textbook (1835) which he called *Introduction to the Science of Government and Compend of the Constitutional and Civil Jurisprudence of the United States with a Brief Treatise on Political Economy Designed for the Use of Families and Schools*. This he says was originally disposed of "principally in a few of the western counties of the state of New York." Its favorable reception there prompted the author to try to adapt it to the states in general. So successful was he that almost three quarters of a century later the book was still a popular textbook in the schools having gone through various forms and revisions and being finally known as *Young's Government Class-book*, a book from which many of the last generation derived their knowledge of our Constitution and its operation. In 1839, the year of his appeal to a wider audience, Young estimated that every year in the state of New York alone 15,000 were initiated into the privileges of citizenship altogether ignorant of the "first principles of political science." "It is not to be expected," he continues, "that political power in such hands can be exercised with safety to the government or with benefit to the community."

Young acknowledges his debt to other textbook writers such as Sullivan, who as early as 1830 wrote *The Political Class Book*, and to such legal authorities as Story and Kent. Joseph Story, an early ap-

pointee to the United States Supreme Court, who became later professor of law at Harvard University, in addition to his scholarly *Commentaries on the Constitution*, did much to spread a knowledge of the Constitution in his *Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States*, which was first published in 1840 and ran through several reprintings for the next thirty years. This was written "for the highest classes in our Common Schools and Academies."—"If it shall tend to awaken in the bosoms of American Youth a more warm and devoted attachment to the National Union, and a more deep and firm love of the National Constitution, it will afford me very sincere gratification and be an ample compensation for the time which has necessarily been withdrawn from my other pressing avocations in order to prepare it."

William Sullivan's book is entitled to more than passing notice. He too, was a lawyer from the state of Massachusetts. His book proved to be so popular that in 1831 he published a new edition. It continued to find a sale as late as 1837. It was designed to be used "*in all the states in the Union*." To quote from the "Advertisement to the New Edition," following the title page, "to make it fit for this purpose, the constitution of each state has been described." Eight of its thirty chapters are devoted to the federal government, but the author makes little effort, as do so many, to adhere closely to the text of the Constitution. It anticipates some of the books of a later date in providing a useful compendium on all sorts of legal points in addition to chapters on religion, education, pursuits in life, and reading for leisure hours.

One of the most patriotic of these textbooks of the Jacksonian epoch was: *Youth's Manual of the Constitution of the United States Adapted to Classes in Schools and to General Use*, "by an instructor," published in 1835 in what was then the chief center of schoolbook publication, Hartford, Connecticut. The unknown author of this little volume of less than two hundred pages, so small that it could be easily slipped into one's pocket, in the following paragraphs from the introduction warns his readers of the peril of neglecting such instruction:

Every American citizen is as it were stationed upon a watch-tower, whence he ought to behold the rulers of the country administering the government under the Constitution, and to descry every deviation from its rules. How will he be able to discharge the duties of such a trust, if he knows not WHAT THE CONSTITUTION IS?

Every American citizen is a sentinel stationed on the outposts, not only of the liberties of his country, but of the great rights and liberties of the whole human family. The Constitution of the United States is the PALLADIUM of

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BOOK OF GOVERNMENT AND LAW;
SHOWING THEIR
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BY S. G. GOODRICH;
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1842.

these rights and liberties. How shall he know when danger is approaching this sacred PALADIUM, if he knows not WHAT IT IS.

The author of the *Manual* in his comments and questions draws heavily upon past experience, taking occasion to warn the pupil of the dangers which threaten a republican form of government. The following paragraph is a sample:

The Athenian democracy, under which the people met in person and enacted laws is an eminent instance of the mischiefs which result from large, popular assemblies. They were instigated by designing demagogues, to the most pernicious acts; they banished the most deserving citizens and enacted laws one day for the sake as it would seem, of annulling them the next. Many examples to the same purport might be cited.

In 1842 the famous Peter Parley, whose real name was Samuel Goodrich, tried his hand at writing a government textbook, built around the United States Constitution, calling it *The Young American: or Book of Government and Law; Showing their History, Nature and Necessity. For the Use of Schools*. Unlike any of its predecessors, it was enlivened by a number of pictures, so much so as to prompt an envious rival to remark in the preface of his book which seemed to him a treatment more in harmony with the subject: "The most silly stories are often got up, sometimes accompanied by a picture and spread before the young pupil to learn [*sic*] him to read. He looks upon the picture and is pleased with it and he becomes remarkably fond of lessons thus illustrated—so much so, that he forms an attachment for light reading, and can hardly be induced to abandon his picture-book for one that treats upon plain matters of fact, useful in boyhood and in old age." *The Governmental Instructor* in which this outburst appears devotes about two-thirds the entire book to an interesting discussion of the historical background and the various provisions of the Constitution.

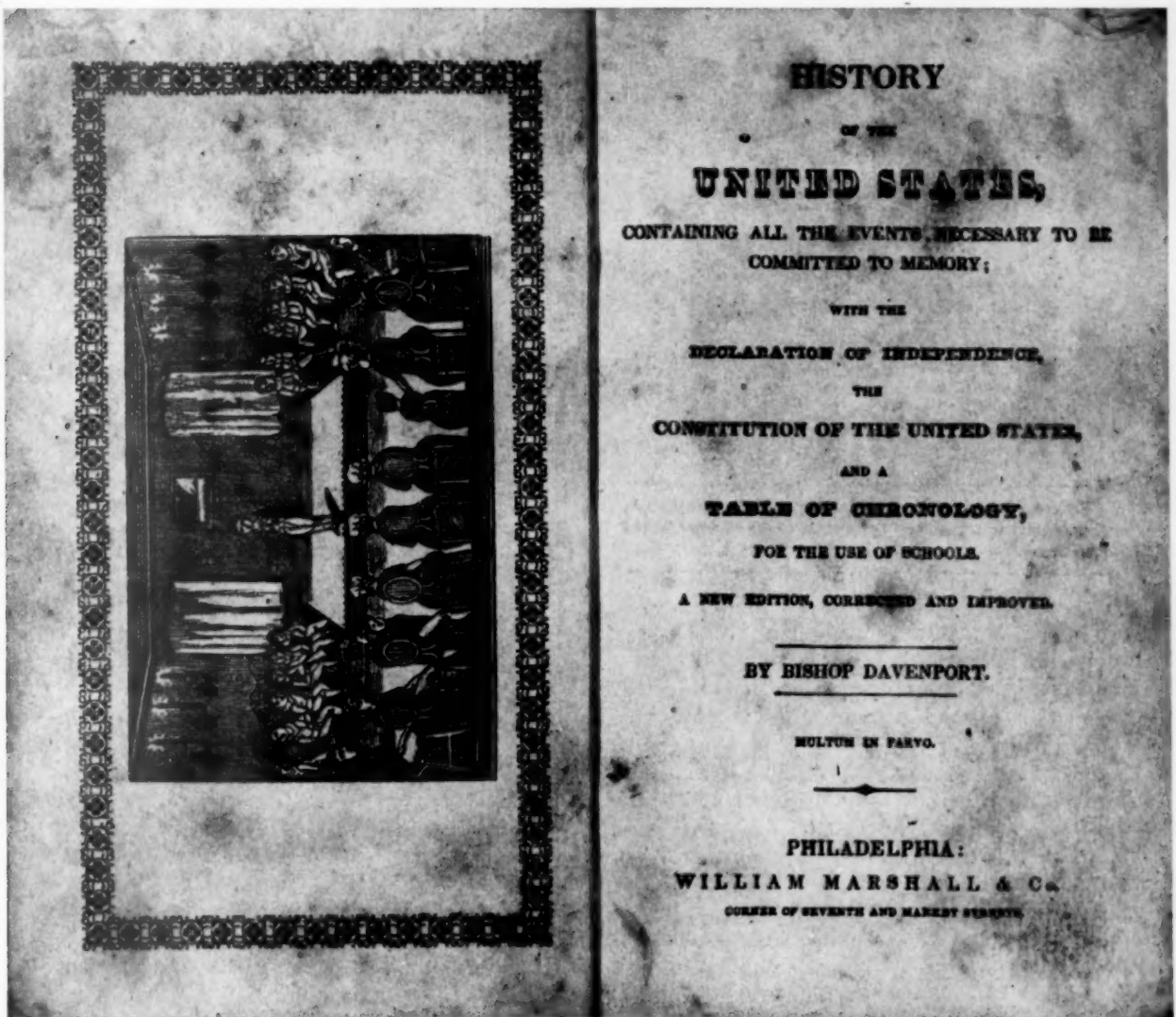
The character of these schoolbooks changed but little down to the Civil War. Many of the books of the thirties continued to appear in new editions. The Constitution itself formed the core of these books and many of them were little more than catechisms. A good example was *A Brief Exposition of the Constitution of the United States for the Use of Common Schools*, by the principal of the Philadelphia High School. As a justification of the appropriateness and practicability of teaching its provisions the author asks, "Is it one whit more difficult than to comprehend and recollect the various details of Geography and History, to give off-hand the position of Timbuctoo or the Tagus, or to know in what year Rome was founded or Caesar slain?"

It might be expected that the study of United States history would carry with it some consideration of the federal government. Not so. As late as the fifties, with here and there an exception, these school histories made little or nothing, either of the federal Constitution itself or of the federal government. It was rare indeed to find the text of that document in these books as is now the common practice. Even such a popular textbook as Salma Hale's *Premium History of the United States*, written in 1826 in response to a prize of \$400 offered by the American Academy of Language and Belles-Lettres, devotes but six short paragraphs to the Constitution and does not supply the text even in the appendix. Rev. Charles A. Goodrich, a brother of the famous Peter Parley, whose popular textbook, first written in 1822, passed through one hundred editions (being printed as late as 1880) down to the edition of 1847 relies upon Noah Webster's brief abstract of the Constitution, which he quotes verbatim.

Emma Willard, famous woman educator of the early part of the nineteenth century, principal of the Troy Female Seminary, is one of the few writers to include the complete text of the Constitution as well as the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation and Washington's Farewell Address in her school history of the United States, published in 1828. This textbook went through several editions. She pays a tribute to the Constitution in the body of her narrative comparable to that of the unknown author mentioned earlier: "Now the Constitution of the United States of America after fifty years of experience, is regarded by the friends of the rights of man in both hemispheres as the palladium of the civil liberty of the world."

J. Olney, who was almost as famous for his geography textbooks as was Jedidiah Morse, also attempted a school history of the United States. This appeared in 1836. On its title page he called especial attention to the fact that it was not only "a new plan adapted to the capacity of youth," but to it "is added the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States." This book also contained questions on the Constitution. Bishop Davenport's school history published three years earlier, in spite of its small size and question and answer form, included the full text of both the Declaration and the Constitution and was probably the first history textbook to contain questions on the Constitution.

These few history textbooks of the late twenties and early thirties perhaps bear witness, as do those in government, to the gradual influence of Jacksonian democracy on the teaching of history. In the main, however, the pupils of those early days were forced to resort to special textbooks in government, many of them not found below the academy level, for even the text of the federal Constitution, to say nothing



FRONTISPIECE AND TITLE PAGE OF ONE OF THE EARLY TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY CONTAINING THE TEXT OF THE UNITED STATES CONSTITUTION. EXACT SIZE.

of any detailed exposition of the government which it created.

In the years which followed the Civil War, the Constitution continued to be the basis of all instruction in government in the schools. The text of the document was also to be found in most of the schoolbooks in United States history. It was not until almost the second decade of the present century that such instruction began to give way to community civics, as it was called, with the chief emphasis upon living together and community organization. The years immediately following the World War brought new emphasis upon a study of the Constitution itself. The textbook output of those years, bearing such innocuous titles as *The Constitution Today*, *The Constitution of Our Country*, etc., consists primarily of analyses of the text of the document and remind us

very much of the schoolbooks of the last century. Nor do authors disdain to imitate Peter Parley and use pictures.

The 1920's witnessed a special drive for the teaching of the Constitution in the schools. The conditions prevailing during the World War seemed to indicate that such teaching had been sadly neglected. By 1924 thirty-one states had passed laws requiring the teaching of the Constitution. The following year an organization which had been working for this result claimed that thirty-three states had made mandatory a teacher's examination on the Constitution and that 200,500 teachers were teaching the Constitution in accordance with this mandatory legislation to over 4,000,000 children.

The present celebration of the sesquicentennial of the formation of the Constitution will undoubtedly

arouse new interest in familiarizing the members of the rising generation with this great document so that they too, with their ancestors of a hundred years ago, may "know when danger is approaching this sacred PALLADIUM because they KNOW WHAT IT IS." A nationwide test will be administered in connection

with the celebration. This will reveal the extent to which textbooks and teaching are actually reaching the masses in the schools.²

¹ Italics are those of the writer of this article.

² The illustrations reproduced are from books in the collection of the writer.

Civics and Student Participation¹

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When in these days, if I may be pardoned the bromide, democracy is on trial, it is certainly important that those who are trying to make our school life a real experience in democracy should endeavor to find out the very best way to put over the job. Through such discussions as you have had, you have been able to share your experiences, whether they were happy or unpleasant ones, and to learn from both successes and failures what will work and what will not.

From the many recent programs on student participation I have concluded that the thing that is on your minds is also on the minds of a great many other people. What, then, can students participate in that is of a civic character and that can be helped by the classroom study of civics? How can civics help to make young men and women more capable of understanding the problems of their time and better able to help in reaching an intelligent solution of them?

Student participation may be interpreted as meaning participation in school affairs as well as those outside. Here the civics classes have an opportunity to make a very direct contribution, in that their own study necessarily considers methods of government and administration. Whether our school has an enrollment of 300 or 3000, there are features of school activity in which students can properly participate and even accept real responsibility.

Sometimes the civics teacher is the best person in the whole faculty to be the faculty sponsor for the school student organization. It is my opinion that, whether in an individual case the civics teacher and the sponsor are one and the same person, no one has any business to teach civics unless he *could* sponsor such an organization. Through the leadership of civics classes school elections may be planned and conducted in an effective way and in accordance with approved methods. Through civics classes such proposals as preferential voting and propor-

tional representation can be first understood and then practiced and perhaps made a part of the policy of the school in choosing class, club, and school officials. Often, moreover, when something has happened that is detrimental to the welfare or reputation of the school, the officers of the student association may be far more successful than members of the faculty in finding out the persons who are responsible for reprehensible conduct and in bringing them to account for their actions. While no student organization should be expected to make its officers mere "stooges" for the faculty, it means an uncountable gain for the spirit of the school if they can feel that their leadership may help to develop in the school the kind of spirit that will not condone misconduct on the part of any of the members of the school.

It is obvious that civics, if it is to function actively in real living, must be something more than a textbook study. As a writer of textbooks, you surely will not expect me to say that textbooks are unimportant. If I did not believe that they are of very great value, I would not spend my time writing them and trying to keep them up-to-date. I have little sympathy with those people who tell us that it makes no difference whether we know or do not know how long the President is elected for, or when the terms of our present United States senators expire, or who the justices of our Supreme Court are. We do need to have a knowledge of facts in order to give our suppositions definiteness, and to serve as a foundation for the conclusions we reach as to the things that are desirable or undesirable in our political, social, and economic life.

Having said that, I hope in such a way that no one can misunderstand me, I state as my next means of promoting student participation that the civics classroom ought to be always an open forum in which the problems of school, community, state, and nation are discussed with the utmost frankness and

freedom. I am happy indeed that in Pittsburgh we have never had a "red rider" attached to any regulation to be observed in getting our pay checks. There is not and never has been upon the thinking or teaching of professors or instructors in any grade in the public schools or the University any limitation other than those of common sense and a reasonable regard for the opinions of others. In my own teaching, I have found it desirable many times to make it clear to pupils that some things were done in the politics of city and county that were not creditable to those who did them, and I have also felt obligated to say to a class now and then, "Please don't let yourself think that every person in political life is a crook. There are honest people holding public office."

Some people who like to get publicity for themselves lament the supposed fact that in schools we teach pupils that everything is done by our public officials and legislative bodies just as it should be. My own observation is that neither do most teachers of today pretend the existence of any such situation, nor is there any use in trying to fool the average high school class into thinking that that kind of condition exists. Too many pupils have become acquainted with what a ward chairman does, to believe that everyone appointed to a city office or elected to a state legislature works for the common good.

A further means of developing realistic student participation in community interests is through training in the processes of voting. We have now in our state a permanent registration of voters. In our schools we have introduced a corresponding system of registration which goes into operation with every individual as soon as he reaches the seventh grade. Registration cards have been provided which are very similar to those used by the actual voters who register for participation in the regular elections. These cards are transferred with the pupil when he goes from one school to another and are used on election day in a manner similar to that of the actual election proceedings. On the same day that the adult voters go to the polls, every student in the city from the seventh grade up votes for the same officers who are to be chosen in the regular polling places on that day. Further, it is the intention that these registration cards shall be kept in the school after a pupil gets his diploma or leaves for any other reason, and that as soon as he reaches the age of twenty-one the proper officials in the school will send him a letter or otherwise notify him of the fact that he can and should get himself properly registered on the permanent voting lists of the city. Of course, this is not actual participation in political life, but it at least attempts to enable the student while he is in school to participate in the thinking of the community with reference to the choice of public officials, and to get some experience in making such choices himself.

Over and over again pupils have gone to their teachers and asked, "How can I find out who the best candidates are?" Of course the teacher does not feel always that it is quite appropriate to tell the pupil the names of the candidates for whom the teacher himself intends to vote, but if nothing more is accomplished than to show the pupil the problem involved in picking out the best candidates, at least something has been accomplished. So then we do believe that civics classes can promote student participation in civic affairs through developing an intelligent understanding of current problems, and through sharing the same experiences before and on election day that will come to the voter when he is over twenty-one.

What I have said up to this point may have given the impression that student participation in civic affairs is chiefly a matter of attitude and understanding. That, of course, is true to a very great extent because children, and even high school students who no longer care to be called children, cannot assume actual civic responsibility to any very great extent. Professor Clyde B. Moore in his thought-provoking discussion of *Citizenship Through Education*, published a few years ago, makes the point, however, that "Every citizen should have an opportunity to participate in civic affairs in so far as he is able." He adds, "It is a function of the school to assist boys and girls to participate in the various civic and social organizations which contribute to the common welfare." He makes an extensive list of activities whose purpose obviously can be appreciated by pupils even when not very old, and which also have some bearing on community welfare in general. He includes:

1. Safety Council
2. Hygiene and Health Clubs
3. League for the Protection of Birds
4. Correspondence with Children in Other Lands
5. Canning Clubs
6. Banking and Saving Enterprises
7. Gully Clubs
8. Civic Improvement Clubs
9. Aiding in a Community Drive
10. Safety Patrol Officers
11. Reporting News from Schools
12. Fire Prevention Week
13. Assistance in Managing Playgrounds
14. Cooperation in Beautifying School Grounds, and numerous others.

Whether we should classify such organizations as Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, and cooperation in the making of bird boxes, observing music week, and selling Christmas seals, as forms of civic participation is a point on which there might be some difference of opinion. It seems to me, however, that in

supporting the Junior Red Cross, in taking an active part in such activities as Clean-up Week, Community Fund campaigns, popularizing needed school bond issues, and similar activities, we do aid the local community, or even a wider field of humanity, in a distinctly helpful way.

The only doubt that occurs to me in connection with such matters is the extent to which pupils should be asked to set aside their regular school interests and activities in order to take part in some campaign, the responsibilities for which must be met by adults, or which is promoted by groups that do not have extensive support in the community. Does it do any good, for instance, to close the schools so that pupils can stand on the sidewalk and watch a Columbus Day parade? Moreover, would anything of real importance be gained in having pupils take part in such a parade? Recognition of the achievements of great characters in the history of our own country or of the world, it seems to me, does not gain by closing the schools and turning pupils out to go to the movies or do something else that will enable them to forget the excuse for their holiday.

If, however, participation in community movements is so conducted that pupils do actually realize the purpose of the undertaking and feel that they are doing something themselves to improve their own community or render service to human beings elsewhere, such activities are highly commendable and can hardly fail to promote the kind of civic spirit which we ought to foster.

There are a few matters on which I should like to speak briefly, about which there may be in this company some difference of opinion. The first of these is the scheme that now and then is tried in some schools of letting the student officers of the school organization pretend for a day that they are the mayor and council, the city treasurer, or director of public works, or some other official of some importance. I question very much the wisdom of that kind of thing. If a real problem should come up—and who can tell on what day some unexpected event might upset the general routine of any public office—it would be absolutely silly for a high school pupil to exercise actual authority in sending the police somewhere or doing something else that only the legally sworn officials of the city should have the right to do. If, on the other hand, it is mere play and the regular officials see to it that only such matters are brought to the temporary student officials as could be handled by anybody with ordinary common sense, virtually no practical experience has been gained. Would not just as much be accomplished by allowing student representatives to sit in the office of the mayor, or the director of public works, or the city solicitor, or any other official who might be named, for a whole day and see what actually does happen in the course of

the day's experiences? I most heartily favor first-hand acquaintance on the part of pupils with the way public business is actually carried on. That is another kind of vicarious civic participation. But generally speaking, I believe it is safer for them to see how the regularly sworn officials do or do not perform their duties than to pretend to do the work themselves.

Now let me refer to certain attempts to influence public opinion on matters that are supposed to be of significance to young people of today. Here is one group that claims to represent the students of our colleges and some of our high schools by going to Washington and demanding something like three billion dollars to be appropriated by Congress to make it easy for certain boys and girls to get through high school or through college. I know that some who are honestly anxious to work do not get the chance right away, but are we going to teach our boys and girls that all they need to do when they want something is to ask the federal government to pass it out to them free? What is this country coming to if its young people are to enter the responsible stage of their lives with the notion that a government dole is always available when one wants something that he does not have? I know it is not popular these days to say that one makes something of himself by working, but it is far better for a young person to deny himself something now and then than to get into the habit of running to Washington for a "handout." That kind of student participation, it seems to me, is demoralizing both to those who indulge in it and to the country which might permit such mistaken charity.

Should students try to take an active part in political campaigns? Of course their votes won't count except in the very few cases when pupils themselves are twenty-one, but they might have some influence on public opinion. If we try it, let us not be too ready to follow the politician who talks so often and so loudly about his love for the common people. There is a little of the rebel or the reformer—or both—in a lot of us, and we sometimes forget the sound truth that great movements are not brought about overnight. So let us be careful to avoid letting our emotions run away with our reason.

In the *Student Leader* for May, 1937, is printed an article entitled, "A Challenge to Student Government." It refers to activities of one kind or another that were scheduled for April 22 of the current year and urges all boys and girls to emphasize by every possible means the calamities of war and the desirability of peace. With that purpose stated as I have worded it, there can be little disagreement. War is a horrible thing; peace is a desirable thing for every individual and nation; but how are we going to bring about the abolition of war and the establishment of peace by urging students to cut classes and take part in perfectly futile parades? Peace will never be

achieved either by disobedience to proper authority or by the passage of resolutions virtuously declining to participate in war. I do not doubt that some have sincerely thought that by so doing they were accomplishing something. But how many times have the movers in such projects been the "smart-alecks," the agitators, the would-be martyrs, the publicity hounds, the individuals who like to think they are independent of any authority!

If school assembly programs can be arranged that will set forth the desirability of peace and by perfectly reasonable means make clear the evils of war, surely there can be no objection to them. But let us be sure, if we are student leaders, that self-advertisement, a dislike of or resistance to authority, or a wanton interference with the regular program of school activities, should play no part in any peace programs we work up. And why in the world shouldn't we hold peace programs on May 18, a perfectly appropriate day, instead of deliberately selecting a day that means nothing in itself, so as to make as much of a nuisance as possible out of the proposition?

I attended a preparatory school at which military drill was required of every boy. How silly of anyone to pretend that it made me want to enlist or to desire that this nation should get into a fight! It was good fun and good training. I am glad I had it. No one today wants peace for this country and the world any

more heartily than I do, but let us be sensible. As long as some countries are aggressive no nation can say we can be at peace merely by wanting to be; and no individual who has any regard for the nation which means so much to him as does the United States of America to its own citizens has any right to say, "I won't serve my country in time of need."

So then, civics in the classroom or practiced anywhere else should encourage student participation in the activities of school and of life outside. Classroom civics may help pupils to assume the responsibilities that they may reasonably accept in the administration of the school to which they belong. It may help them to understand the problems of the time through free discussion in the classroom. It may train them through experiences in voting, and others parallel to those of adult life, to perform more intelligently those activities when the law thinks they are old enough. It may help them to develop such a spirit of self-reliance and common sense that they will not go into public life as either beggars or cowards. Such opportunities through the study of civics as are offered today in the live and up-to-date school may furnish a training for the full acceptance of civic responsibility, first vicariously, and sooner than we sometimes realize, in reality.

¹ An address delivered before the sixth annual convention of the National Association of Student Officers, Detroit, July 2, 1937.

Can We Still Teach History?

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The trend in secondary education today, like other phases of our modern life, is clearly seen in its efforts to become pragmatic in methodology and purpose. History is concerned with records, relics, and documents of the past. For this reason the pragmatists feel that the study of history is a useless waste of time and energy that might be much more profitably used in studying current social problems. The tendency in most secondary schools is to depreciate the value of the study of history and instead of having a separate department of history to have one general department of social sciences in which are included history, sociology, social studies, economics, and civics. The pragmatists overlook the fact that the modern historian is not interested in records as such, but in the life of the people who made the records. The modern historian does not abandon the slogan

"No documents no history," but at the same time he is more interested in the whole social order of the past of which the document is an incidental product.

The modern historian recognizes the continuity of life and history. He knows that what humanity is at a given moment is due to what it was yesterday. Therefore the task of the historian is to trace the causal connections between the life of humanity today and that of preceding ages. Inasmuch as the technique of history is more adapted to the purpose of tracing the causal connections in the continuity of humanity's life stream, than any other of the so-called social sciences, we can and should still teach history.

One of the most important aims of education is to make better citizens, and to prepare them for living the best life possible. Most educators will agree that one of the most important items in the learning

process is memory. This is not only important in the learning process, but it is essential in the life of any living organism that has to adjust itself to its environment. William James, the great psychologist said that memory is so important that without it there could be no such thing as human progress. The child learning to walk, or learning its letters today would have to learn them over each day. Memory becomes the stepping stones which lead from conservatism to liberalism and progress. It is the connecting link between the present and the past, and the bridge that spans the chasm between the present and the future. History when taught as history is a valuable means of training the memory. If the student got no more out of learning dates, and studying the dry-as-dust facts of the past than the aid to his memory I should say that we should teach history.

It is rather pathetic and disgusting to see educated people with such poor training in memory that they cannot make a three minute speech without notes. The pupils in history should be required to learn some important dates and be able to associate with the dates the events connected with them. The tendency in modern history teaching does not place so much emphasis upon dates as in days gone by. Yet we cannot entirely dispense with learning of dates if the history course is to be a laboratory for the training of the pupils' memory.

The study of history should also be a means of training and developing the imagination. In his psychology, James speaks of two kinds of imagination: productive and reproductive. Reproductive imagination lends itself readily to the uses of history. It is that process by which the mind recalls and rearranges the events of the past until they form new mental objects in the mind of the individual. What boy is there who does not recall in imagination the army of Caesar, who does not follow with unflagging interest Washington crossing the Delaware, life on the frontier, or the air flight of Lindbergh? After the pupils have mastered the facts of history in bare outline, then it is that the imagination begins its work as it fills in the details. The picture of the past is never complete until imagination has put on the finishing touches.

Into whatever vocation one may expect to enter, he

will find a need for a developed imagination. It is essential to the civil engineer, and to the attorney at the bar; likewise it is essential to the success of the clergyman, the teacher, and the scientist as well. In practical realms, it is evident what a dull monotonous routine this life would be without the use of the imagination. One thing that distinguishes man from the lower creatures of the earth is his imagination. By means of it he can project himself into the future, and prepare himself to meet its problems. By his imagination man abolishes the veil, and destroys the wall of petition between the seen and unseen. It enlarges the world and broadens and deepens the experience of every individual who dares to use it. So long as the imagination is a useful factor in human living, we must still teach history.

The teaching of history can be made to serve a noble purpose in character building. History furnishes examples of the past upon which a structure of character may be built. In American history the treason of Benedict Arnold is an example to be avoided; while the honesty of Washington, and the courage of Patrick Henry are examples worthy of emulation. Many pupils find something in the lives of men and women of the past that inspires them to practice their virtues. History can be made a great lesson in character building, by pointing out the pitfalls to be avoided and the virtues to be magnified and followed.

No man can build up his character until he has first known himself. History teaches one to know himself, as one has wisely said:

History teaches a man how small he is by showing him so many greater. It teaches him how great he may be by showing what less favored men have done. It purges him of conceit by revealing his fancied originality as a commonplace of centuries gone. It overthrows his dogmatism by proving to him that other men no less honest than he, and much wiser, have been mistaken in their judgments.¹

So long as human nature remains what it is, we can and must still teach history.

¹ John W. Wayland, *How to Teach American History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1914), pp. 3-4.

Vitalizing Sociology Instruction

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There are many people today who say that our schools are antiquated and out-of-date, that our instruction is fifty years old, and that the same methods are used that were in use a generation ago. The writer introduced a course in sociology about three years ago, the one main aim of which was to teach about live persons, live things, and live issues. The initial and subsequent courses have been taken by large groups of students who have stated that the courses were different from ordinary ones in that they were getting something that was new and modern.

The writer has never been afraid of experimentation. Many errors have resulted, but he feels that progress has been made by developing within the students an independence of investigation, an attitude of growth, and a fund of information (much of which was incidentally acquired) altogether satisfactory, rich and enlightening. For the want of a better word the writer likes to term his instruction the "fusion" type of teaching because all available sources and aids are drawn upon and no one method has been used exclusively.

The writer has always used a textbook as an instructional guide for several reasons; (1) The state requires it; (2) A textbook is usually written by an expert and is a logically and orderly arranged body of information; (3) Without a textbook as a guide a course frequently drifts into a confused, unorganized study of unrelated and illogical topics. After the most modern and interesting textbook on sociology was adopted for class use, the next step was for the student to select for special investigation, study, and survey a social problem in which he was especially interested. Numerous social problems, related to the course, were listed on the board; probably thirty or more problems were suggested. Some of the chief ones were; Crime, Prisons, Juvenile Delinquency, Insanity, Education, Safety, Recreation, Social Diseases, Health, Housing, Race Relations, Suicides, Divorces, Immigration, Capital Punishment, Labor Problems, War and Peace, and Coöperatives. Each pupil was asked to choose the topic in which he had the greatest degree of interest. Sources of data were furnished each student by the instructor. Books, magazines, and newspapers were consulted daily for new aids. Booklets printed by corporations, organizations and individuals on the given problem were

assigned the students so that they might get the latest and most reliable data available. To be specific, if a student chose the topic, Safety Education, he would be told that Milwaukee, Evanston, Chicago, and Providence had been unusually successful with safety education and much valuable information could be secured from these cities. The names of certain automobile manufacturers would be given to the students so that bulletins and booklets could be secured relating to the topics. The names of independent organizations, such as the American Legion and American Automobile Association, were supplied the student. Postal cards were used extensively and for a dime many of the students secured enough materials on a problem to make them, almost experts on the subject.

The instructor made it a point to call in at the proper time, the best talent in our city to give professional instruction on the particular problem under consideration. If we were discussing crime, the attorney general of our county was invited to the classroom and after a lecture of twenty-five or thirty minutes, he was interrogated for the remaining fifteen minutes of the period. On one occasion, Mr. J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, generously permitted one of his men, who was in our city, to lecture to the class and answer questions. Our class was exceedingly fortunate last year in that our county was the center of one of the Adult Forums conducted by the United States Department of Education under the direction of Commissioner J. W. Studebaker. We were able to secure the coöperation of these forum leaders at times when they were not encumbered by previous engagements. We drew on the numerous authorities in the various fields of our city.

One of our chief topics of study last year was race relations. We were able to bring before our sociology class, through permission of our very progressive Principal S. E. Nelson, some of the leaders of the colored race in the South. A number of our pupils gave a broadcast over our local radio hookup which drew wide acclaim. This same group of students gave a panel discussion in the chapel of the largest colored high school in our city. Numerous essays and articles were written by the students on better racial understanding and as

a result of our coöperate efforts—our class won the first place in the South for putting on the best unit in "Interracial Understanding." This award was \$100. Our publicity for this achievement was extensive.

One of the most practical features of the entire program was that part which dealt with the trips made by students. Several trips of interest and practical significance were made under the direction of the writer. Trips to Atlanta, Georgia, Nashville, Tennessee, and Norris Dam, Tennessee as well as many local trips were made by the group.

In Atlanta we had a conference with the governor of Georgia. We inspected the Federal Reserve Bank, the Federal Housing Unit, the Federal Prison, Stone Mountain, the Broadcasting Station, Berry Schools, Georgia School of Technology and many other points of social, historical and economic importance.

In Nashville, we saw how the state hospital for the insane was conducted. We spent considerable time inspecting our state prison. The "Hermitage"—home of Andrew Jackson was visited, as well as Fisk University, a noted Negro school. The Parthenon, with its beautiful architecture and paintings brought out much interest from the pupils.

The Norris Dam project was carefully inspected and the students saw where our government was spending millions to bring about better living conditions among the thousands of people in this area. The students, too, realized that this colossal proj-

ect would help to develop this region and to regulate flood control in the Tennessee Valley.

Many local trips were taken that proved profitable to the students. A visit to a naturalization court made the immigration problem more real. A visit to the Hamilton County Workhouse, the Alms-house, and other institutions gave the students a first hand picture of the way the unfortunates of our county are treated.

At the conclusion of each investigation, the students are always allowed approximately ten minutes to give to the class the benefits of their findings as well as to give members of the class a chance to have explained certain questions raised by those who make the reports. Frequently, the best written reports or summaries of the students' findings are published by the local newspapers. Many of the papers show that the students have made superior investigations and studies.

As a rule, the unusual letters or pictures received by the investigating students, are pasted in a co-operative class scrapbook for the future use of the sociology classes.

In discussing our program of instruction with some of the leading educators of our country, we have been highly encouraged. We have not done everything that there is to be done, but we do feel that we are headed in the right direction. Experience, maturity, and time will aid us in improving the program so that it may be more vital.

A Look at the "End Product" of Secondary Political Science Instruction

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Conscientious instructors in social science are constantly seeking to discover the effectiveness of their work. Adequate standards by which they may judge their "end product" are difficult to erect. In the summer of 1936 the writer attempted a comprehensive study of the effect of college training on student political attitudes. From this study the writer not only noticed some of the results of secondary training, but also saw the emergence of some methods of measuring the same. In order to ascertain the growth or retrogression of political attitudes, interests, and ideals during the collegiate years it was necessary to examine carefully the freshmen, who

represented in most instances the very recent product of the high schools. The results of this freshmen survey, compiled largely from a signed questionnaire, may be of some assistance in focusing attention on the strength and weaknesses of instruction in civics. Space forbids detailed treatment and only a minimum number of statistics need be presented in order to indicate certain trends.¹

Four per cent of the freshmen reported that they were completely devoid of any political interest. The remaining 96% were asked to check, out of fourteen items, the two most influential factors in the development of their interest in public affairs. The public

schools proved to be the largest single item, being noted by 47%. Second and third in importance were discussion at home and the newspapers, receiving 41% and 34% respectively. Remembering that 53% failed to note or were not impressed by their secondary training, which was but a few months in the past, it may be asked if the schools are as dynamic a force as might reasonably be expected. The answer may be left, perhaps discreetly, to the individual teacher to determine in the light of his or her own standards.

The methods of keeping informed on contemporary events that were mentioned, in order of frequency, were radio programs, newspapers, magazines, private discussions and public lectures, "The March of Time," Boake Carter, and news broadcasts were the most popular programs, respectively. Conspicuous by their absence were some of the more scholarly, yet highly valuable programs such as the "National Radio Forum," the "University of Chicago Round Table," and a host of local programs sponsored by universities and educational groups. Even "America's Town Meeting of the Air," a popular program among adults, received very few mentions.

Similarly, the most widely used magazines and newspapers were limited to a few of the more dramatic ones. The *Chicago Tribune* was found to have led the newspaper field when 34% indicated that they relied on it.² Second and third were the *Chicago Daily News* (22%) and the *American Observer* (20%). Nine per cent mentioned the *New York Times* and 2% referred to the *Christian Science Monitor*. Obviously, these figures do not indicate the amount of reading done in the newspapers. However, a healthy skepticism of newspapers showed itself in spontaneous remarks written in answer to the question. This is all the more significant when one remembers that this survey was made six weeks prior to the wholesale repudiation of the press evidenced in the reelection of President Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Time magazine dominated the periodical field being listed by 28% and overshadowing the late lamented *Literary Digest* three to one and *Newsweek* four to one. *Readers Digest* and the *Saturday Evening Post* received frequent mention although the political information contained in them is extremely meager. Again, these recent high school graduates showed but little familiarity with the wide range of liberal and conservative periodicals which deal with social problems.

At the risk of being accused of dogmatism the writer submits that one of the most important objectives of a social science course should be to help the student learn how to read newspapers and magazines intelligently so as to appreciate what he has read and to understand the subtle devices used to

mold public opinion. Moreover the teacher should point out, impartially, those magazines and radio programs which can help the student to understand public affairs.

As another approach to the problem of what "took" in secondary training, the entrants were asked to describe those projects or activities (during the past two years) which were most influential in the development of their political awareness. Nineteen per cent could not recall *any* such activities. Class discussion of political issues and model assemblies of legislative and judicial bodies each received favorable comment by 21%. Other items reported by considerably smaller numbers included visits to public agencies, specially assigned civic projects investigated and summarized in a term paper, high school politics and participation in school government. Debating, student forums and clubs occupied a relatively small place. It is believed that such speaking activities as well as permitting the high school students to govern their local municipality for one day each year might be capitalized upon to a much greater extent. However, it is for each school and instructor to decide how far these projects may be utilized effectively. Free and open discussion in the classroom, however, is one method of stimulating interest which is within the province of every school. This activity has made a definite impression upon the school's "end product."

Many of the above results may indicate relatively little in regard to the effectiveness of secondary political science instruction. A better index may be found in the *attitudes* of these recent graduates towards their anticipated citizenship activities and the public service. In answer to the question as to whether or not they would like to run for a public office approximately 23% replied in the affirmative—an admirable figure! The optimism, if such it may be, created by this fact is tempered by an examination into the reasons why the remaining 77 out of every 100 lack the desire of such an ambitious undertaking.

Although many reasons were listed, figures for the five greatest deterrents are worthy of citation:

Insecurity of position	33%
Politics is too corrupt	31%
Too difficult to get started	7%
Lack of prestige	5%
Small salary	4%

Several important observations are apparent. Salary is a relatively small barrier. The two greatest obstacles to be overcome in getting young people interested in public life as a career are the beliefs that public positions are insecure, if not lacking a future, and that public office holders are corrupt. Consider some of the unsolicited remarks about holding a public office—"I don't like to kiss babies or run for

office on false issues or make compromises with lice." "Not skilled in soft-soaping the public." "Must take orders from political boss, regardless of own views." "Too difficult to be an honest politician." And this from a girl!—"One must be too clever and selfish. I think I have too great a love for my country to become associated with its corrupt politics." Finally, this frightening statement was rendered by a Chicago student—"If you tried to better conditions you would pay with your life!"

Throughout the entire questionnaire it was repeatedly in evidence that a large bloc, perhaps as high as one-third of the freshman class, was of the opinion that politics was too "dirty" for them. Chicago area students showed considerably more cynicism (and perhaps with reason) about politics than students from elsewhere.

In the writer's judgment many schools are not developing that political idealism which is so necessary for responsible citizenship. As a political scientist he would be the last to aver that politics is a wholly honest business. But as a political scientist he must insist that the truth does not stop there. Politics is equally as honest as business or the professions. Unfortunately, the antics and hooliganism of some politicians, like some citizens, make the front pages, whereas many of the honest plodders and hard workers receive much less attention. A comprehensive study of political biographies will show generous self-sacrifice and genuine concern for the social welfare as well as the fine personality of many public servants. It is the duty of civics teachers to stress political idealism, respect for democratic processes, and those worth-while things which may be accomplished by political action in the not too distant future as well as the unsavory practices of many political leaders.

Besides falling down in this lack of emphasis on the ethical side of politics, civic teachers also have shown themselves to be very deficient in stressing the importance of local government. Freshmen showed many times greater interest in national than in local affairs. The spectacle and drama of the federal elections and projects must not be allowed to obscure the fact that municipal government touches the student far more vitally and frequently than his government in Washington. Although it is trite, there is much to the assertion that the future of American democracy will rest, or at least be inextricably bound up with the way our cities and villages are governed and managed. It is nothing short of alarming to view the declining interest in municipal government. We must not sell our local self-government birthright for a mess of federal patronage!

One of the best tests of the secondary schools' citizenship program is the inspiration which its "end products" have for future political activity. The stu-

dents were asked to check the civic activities in which they would probably participate after leaving college. Let's have a look at the record.

Eight per cent were willing to sign their names to the statement that they would engage in absolutely no citizenship activities. About 79% indicated intention to vote, while 20% said they would like to join a political party, and 13% look forward to non-partisan activity such as civic associations, voters leagues, forums and similar movements. From the writer's viewpoint the greatest deficiency here is not so much in the comparatively large number (21%) who do not anticipate voting but rather the ridiculously small number who are interested in citizen's organizations. Indeed, it was greatly surprising to discover in interviews with many score of these freshmen that they had never heard of the League of Women Voters, Emergency Peace Council, National Municipal League, City Manager's Club, or other similar societies. Very few showed *any* familiarity with the work of these groups and the majority saw no avenues for expressing themselves politically other than voting.

It should be part of the instruction in civics to include abundant reference to the various channels of exercising good citizenship such as activity in a political party, or for those not wishing to accept a party label, citizens' associations. In addition emphasis may be put upon running for a public office; a career in an administrative position; affiliation with public organizations not officially part of the government such as legislative, reference, and research bureaus; adult educational societies; social action church groups; or perhaps a teaching career in social science. These various fields should be dramatized as possible channels within which youthful talent may find political expression, whether that talent be oratory, creative art, social service, drama, statistics, or mere intellectual curiosity.

Dynamic social science teaching must no longer be satisfied with merely "getting out the vote." Rather it must be concerned with pointing out the multifold avenues of constructive activity open to the citizen, and to stressing the fact that politics is the citizen's business. Furthermore it must develop attitudes favorable to the betterment of society through the channels of political action.

In conclusion, a survey of the political attitudes of recent high school graduates shows that the teacher's sins are probably those of omission rather than commission. It is almost universally obvious that insufficient stress is being laid on the periodicals and the materials of political education. There is a marked unawareness of the importance of local government. Without being a "Pollyanna," emphasis must be laid upon some of the more idealistic aspects of what can be done by political action and the satisfactions that

may be derived from a public career and an *esprit de corps*. Indicative of the most important deficiency in public school training is the fact that only a very small minority of students have given any thought to or can picture themselves exercising responsible citizenship other than through the ballot. Secondary education should at least show the avenues that may be utilized.

There will be many teachers who interpret the above figures optimistically and with satisfaction. They will challenge the author's rather critical interpretation of some of them. However, it will be generally accepted that the inclusion and reference to

some of the above elements, so noticeably lacking in contemporary civics courses, will strengthen and improve the effectiveness of such courses.

¹ Approximately 1000 freshmen filled out this inquiry on their entrance into Northwestern University in September, 1936. Half of these freshmen had graduated from high schools in Cook County; the remainder were from all parts of the United States. The results, therefore, are believed to be fairly representative and characteristic of the best "end product" of recent secondary instruction.

² This figure may be accounted for in part by the presence of large numbers of Chicago students. Chicago citizens in the morning have only the *Tribune* or the *Hearst* papers from which to choose and the former is usually preferred.

Attitudes and Vocational Information

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What shall be included in the short course in vocations generally offered to ninth grade pupils? The present tendency of writers on vocational guidance seems to be to stress the importance of developing attitudes and guiding pupils to a consideration of social problems related to earning a living. John M. Brewer believes that a fundamental part of an occupational information course should be . . . "consideration of general problems of occupational life."¹

The writer heartily agrees that acquiring of attitudes and philosophies as well as information about general vocational problems is important. This fact was borne home very definitely when the son of a wealthy and influential citizen remarked in class, "What difference does it make to me whether others are able to have an adequate standard of living? I don't have to worry!" What are some of the attitudes and concepts which we should help our pupils to develop?

It is possible to suggest various things. We may help boys and girls to see the relationship between wealth and service by correcting false ideas regarding the nature and origin of wealth; by showing the value and dignity of service. Issues such as uses and abuses of wealth, why wealth is desired, etc., are probably not too difficult for freshmen. Other and more concrete problems with which the child will be confronted include: employer-employee relationships (including unionization) child labor, operation of wage systems, and unemployment. It would appear desirable also to present and to help pupils to an intelligent and sane reaction to the true pic-

ture of the present day business structure with its relatively watertight divisions.

It is necessary to let pupils know that while they should cultivate diligence, courtesy, and other desirable qualities these will not necessarily be rewarded by steady advance to the top of the business or industrial ladder. Other reasons for their cultivation must be offered. As one writer remarks:

The large majority of American workers are wage-earners or clerks and will always remain such.²

He goes on to say that in the light of such facts the teacher, especially the teacher of vocational information, has a responsibility for helping boys and girls prepare themselves to live as salaried workers or wage-earners in a way which will be satisfying to them, whatever their station. They need to be helped toward coöperation for the common good rather than futile struggle. Vocational description should be realistic rather than prettily fictitious.

However, nearly all of the books intended for ninth grade pupils' use in vocational courses are filled with warning against accepting jobs which do not "lead somewhere." This, despite the fact that it becomes increasingly apparent that there are fewer jobs for the rank and file; that fewer persons will be able to get very far up the vocational ladder; and that many are inherently unable to do so. It is, therefore, up to the teacher to try to counteract the influence of such textual material by providing, as previously stated, an accurate picture of modern economic life and to guide a study of causes of present conditions.

Another related appreciation which the teacher must help pupils achieve is a broad conception of success. This should include an understanding of the difference between temporary and permanent aims and should set pupils to considering what they want. The recently increasing number of lectures, sermons, and magazine articles dealing with a re-appraisal of success, points to the need and desire for considering this topic. In place of the acquisition of great wealth, quick rise to prominence, and the like, we must help children to substitute other satisfactions more probably within their reach and more important to the community.

The best set of standards which the writer has recently heard for measuring success for the average man may be summed up as follows:

1. Honest, intelligent effort at good citizenship, which would include taking responsibilities even without chance of material reward.
2. Loyalty to the best which family and society have tried and found worthy.
3. Doing the best which one can at his given task—a small or obscure one well done is as important as a large one.

On the other hand, it becomes a neat problem for the teacher to avoid disheartening pupils who may have the ability and find the opportunity to become leaders. It is a matter of showing that there are still chances for those who will apply themselves and who are favored by circumstances some of which are within their control. At the same time it is necessary to lead all pupils to face realities without bitterness and to see that only through coopera-

tion can a solution to social problems be reached.

To prevent a feeling of failure among those now preparing for careers which they may not succeed in fully realizing, we must present substitute satisfactions. The cultivation of hobbies—especially creative hobbies—should be encouraged. Any device which will cause pupils to form an interest of this sort merits our efforts. Out of hobbies have grown many jobs, and vocational guidance leaders point to the likelihood of more and more jobs of the personal service type coming into existence in the future.

Moreover, this problem of success ties up closely with that of vocational rewards and their influence in the choice of work pupils plan to do. Rewards may need interpretation. What are some good things in life not measured in terms of money? What is the relation between them and vocational choices? These are some things to bring to pupils' attention.

Friendship, security, a settled home life versus constant shifting from place to place, opportunities for growth and independent work, associates—these and similar topics might be brought in appropriately to a course dealing with occupations.

Important as facts of a statistical nature are, let us not forget that we are dealing with human beings, the development of whose attitudes is of tremendous importance to themselves and to society.

¹ John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1935), p. 331.

² Paul Douglas, "Technical Changes Affecting Vocational Choice," *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, XI (January, 1933) 15.

The Teaching of Modern Social Studies

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Lawrence K. Frank of New York City recently wrote an article on the question: "Where Is Progressive Education Going in Human Relationships?" In this article he states, "With the growing acceptance of progressive methods of organizing school experiences to foster learning and social orientation, new opportunities and responsibilities emerge for the development of much needed educational programs. Of outstanding importance is the need for education in human relations."¹ In this same magazine Wilford M. Aikin writes, "We hope that when

our study (Progressive Education Eight-Year Experiment) ends we shall have made definite progress in developing within our schools the kinds of administration, organization, curriculum content, methods of procedure and general school life appropriate to a democratic society."²

These and many similar statements of educators during the past five years show a growing demand for social studies teaching that will give our young folk a realistic knowledge of the society in which they live and are to take part as citizens. Yet there

seems to be in the minds of many, an erroneous conception as to the way that this realistic knowledge can be given to boys and girls. They discuss these matters merely in the light of today, or of the past few years. I hold to the belief that this often is a superficial discussion and encourages the formation of frivolous judgments.

Many features of contemporary society are as old as the nation, even though different names may be given them. This is a truism in the arts, sciences, and literature, as it is of political and economic institutions and practices. How can there be any hope of achievement in these fields of new concept without studying the trends in *the old art*? The American people have been meeting the issues of currency, banking, tariff, foreign trade, agriculture, the use of natural resources, and the interpretation of the Constitution, for more than a century. To teach these concepts merely in the light of today, or of the past few years, is shallow and conducive to weaker individuals.

It has been a more or less proven fact that the very statement of contemporary problems raises controversial issues and a rational treatment calls for knowledge of relevant facts, skill in research, and the judicial temper. One must know the facts involved in order to state problems clearly and convincingly. This can be done better by the historical approach than by starting with questions that are *hot in the day's news*. One can better penetrate the key points of the issues of today by following their origins and progress to our own times. Thus, when social studies teachers wish to give to their students a knowledge of the strength of civilized man and woman they must not resort to a frivolous commentary on current events, but make use of history taught as history.

In the past, however, history has not been broad enough in its scope. This, I believe, is a recognized fact. Too much emphasis has been placed on political and military history at the expense of the other phases of human society. Later, the other phenomena of social activity were added and they began to include social forces to a limited degree. Yet, this was not enough.

The factors introduced did not constitute life as a whole. It is absolutely essential that history which is true to reality must include the entirety of civilization—a very difficult task. We should proceed from the living past to the living present.

It is not possible to eliminate from the course in social studies the teacher, upon whom the success of the course depends more than upon any textbook or study guide. It is the teacher who must give the directions in any event no matter how complete the directions in the work book appear to be. The larger texts on the social studies, to which the teacher

should refer, will give much assistance in arranging the details of the experiment or project. In my estimation it is thus absolutely necessary for the teacher to know more than is found in the high school history text. To obtain this result it is my firm idea that every teacher must spend a great deal of time in the actual study of historical phenomena. He must realize, "Next to knowing is knowing how to find out."

In the attempt to know how to find out, the teacher must be always on the lookout for more scientific and simple discussions of the vast field which the social studies cover—that is, there should always be the attitude of study in the field to render one capable of being a social studies teacher. This applies to a social studies major student as well as the teacher who has studied the minimum requirements only. Of course, it will require less work for the major student, but nevertheless, if that student fails to keep up in the vast field which he has chosen, he will soon find himself wanting.

What is the key word to success in any type of teaching? It is simplicity. Then if we accept this idea, we must of course, develop ourselves in such a way that it will be possible for us to put the subject across in the simplest manner we can. How must a teacher prepare himself or herself for such a task? The preparation is obvious. The teacher who does not know—cannot explain. This is, of course, considering knowledge as complete to such an extent that one has a conception beyond the point which he wishes to teach. This very clearly necessitates much study and research. It is especially required of the teacher who is not a major in the subject which he is trying to teach.

Thus, boys and girls may be given a realistic knowledge of the society in which they live and are to take part as citizens by being guided in their self expression by competent teachers who have full use of the historical approach. This approach, however, must not be construed to imply that a chronological teaching of history should be used. The successful teacher must also have a sense of balance. That is, he should know just how much chronology is needed in the treatment of the topic or unit. This varies with the subject. Each topic should be brought to date—not just to some period of the countries or world's development. Thus, simplicity, purpose, and knowledge are the triad that best sum up the qualifications of the successful teacher of modern social studies.

¹ L. K. Frank "Where Is Progressive Education Going in Human Relationships?" *Progressive Education*, XIV (October, 1937), 435-439.

² Wilford M. Aikin "The Commission on the Relation of School and College," *Progressive Education*, XIV (October, 1937), 456-457.

The Need for a History of the American Indian

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In his *Winning of the West*, written over fifty years ago, Theodore Roosevelt emphasized the need of a comprehensive history of the American Indian. Were he writing today, he would feel the same need.

The great historians of the United States, from Jared Sparks and George Bancroft to James Ford Rhodes and Edward Channing, say relatively little—indeed almost nothing—about the aborigines. Their interests center in the political and economic aspects of the nation's past, and, however indispensable their works may be, the Indian has received most inadequate consideration at their hands.

Another group of writers have specialized in the detailed study of limited portions of American history, and, within their chosen fields, have given a much more full account of the red man. William H. Prescott and Theodore Roosevelt belong to this school; but they must yield the first honors to one of the greatest names in historiography—that of Francis Parkman. The story of his life and work cannot be detailed at the present time. Suffice it to say that the successive volumes of his monumental study of *France and England in North America* constitute an inexhaustible mine of information concerning a large number of tribes east of the Mississippi river. This is especially true of *The Jesuits in North America in the Seventeenth Century* and *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, both of which contain chapters devoted exclusively to the manners and customs of the Indian. The region north of the Ohio river has been accorded more thorough treatment than the area south thereof, as the climax of the entire story lies in the conquest of Canada by the English. Parkman was not an ethnologist, nor even a trained historian. His understanding of native life was definitely limited. Like Roosevelt, his bias in favor of white men as against red men is so obvious as to destroy its possible harmfulness. However, it is to his everlasting credit that he made extensive use of fresh manuscript source material, with the result that he produced an immortal history written with the forcefulness and charm of a true past master of the literary art.

The publication of the first issue of the *American Anthropologist* in January, 1888, marks the real be-

ginning of the scientific school of Americanists. In that historic number is an article upon Mayan linguistics by Daniel G. Brinton, at the time the foremost ethnologist in the country—a man whose numerous works still repay careful reading. During the half century of its existence, the *American Anthropologist* has ever furthered the accurate study of the Indian. Adolph F. A. Bandelier, Daniel G. Brinton, Henry W. Henshaw, William H. Holmes, Robert H. Lowie, Erland Nordenskiöld, Paul Radin, Clark Wissler, and many more—scholars of unquestioned eminence in their field—have contributed articles to this journal. It seems unfortunate that, in common with other first-rate scientific periodicals, its circulation is too restricted. Accurate and important as its findings with regard to aboriginal America may be, they do not reach any widespread reading public.

The same criticism may with propriety be lodged against the best of the modern scientific historians. The profound scholarship of the late Clarence W. Alvord will stand the test of years. Equally qualified as editor and author, his writing was ever characterized by its absolute precision. *The Kaskaskia Records* and *The Mississippi Valley in British Politics*—in fact, most of his productions—deal in greater or lesser degree with the Indian. Exemplary as these books are, they will never be of use to more than a few select experts.

Mrs. Annie H. Abel-Henderson has produced a study of the Five Civilized Tribes that possibly may remain a model of accuracy and painstaking research for all time. Her three volumes upon *The Slaveholding Indians* cover the period from 1850 to the days of reconstruction after the Civil War with unprecedented thoroughness. However, unless the reader is a specialist of no mean attainment, he will soon be lost in the intricate maze of detail.

Many more examples might be cited, but enough has been said to obtain some idea of the status of Indian history. This may be summarized. (1) The general and well-known histories of the United States have little to say concerning it. (2) The aborigines tend to receive more attention in the regional histories—such as Parkman in the East and Hubert

Howe Bancroft in the West—but, although these works share in popularity with the general histories, their geographical limitations preclude a sufficiently inclusive account of the Indian. (3) Modern scientific studies usually lack popular appeal, and moreover tend to be concerned with one tribe or a small group of tribes. Thus the need for an adequate history of the American Indian remains.

The justifications for such a work are manifold. History is a science. That is, within the field of human relations, it endeavors to apply the most exact methods of analysis for the attainment of factual knowledge. If history is to remain a science, it must recognize its connections with other sciences—anthropology and ethnology among them—even as chemistry is related to mathematics and physics. The historical study of any race of man is the most tangible link available for effecting the connection between the twilight zone of prehistory and our own time. In so far as this continent is concerned, the Indian is an absolutely essential part of the ethnical chain uniting the Mound Builders with the year 1937.

Moreover, the study of the Indian may be regarded as one aspect of the much broader study of dependent peoples. The supremacy of the white race and the growth of imperialism since the close of the Middle

Ages have led to a coincident increase in the number and importance of dependent populations. Any real comprehension of the history of civilization as a whole must presuppose a thorough understanding of the part played by such groups. The Indian thus becomes a factor in world history, even as the Australian, the Hindu, the Bantu.

Those who are interested in the truth concerning the history of the United States, cannot afford to be ignorant of the aborigines. Not an inconsiderable portion of the population has an admixture of Indian blood. Our farms and cities occupy land where once they lived and hunted. Our commerce follows rivers and roads they used and named centuries before ocean liners, stream-lined trains, and automobiles were even dreamed of. Maize, potatoes, and tobacco were cultivated by them before Leif Ericsson reached Vinland or Columbus set foot on Watling's island. The names of Bryant and Cooper, Longfellow and Whittier, Helen Hunt Jackson and Edna Dean Proctor, Hamlin Garland and John G. Neihardt, all attest the influence of the Indian upon American literature.

After some four hundred years of contact between white man and red, an adequate history of the American Indian remains to be written.

Another Orientation Course

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Alabama College is a state college for women with an enrollment of 800 drawn from all sections of the state. Many of the girls who come to us are from high schools where library facilities and cultural opportunities are limited and we have built up a survey course in the history of civilization to meet the needs of just such students. It is a five-hour course, given with the help of the music and the art departments. The course deals with civilization from the prehistoric era to the present day with emphasis on the following periods: the Ancient East, Greece, the Mohammedan and Arabic World, Rome, the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the Modern World.

We take up for each important period the five great problems that man has always had to face: (1) his attempt to make a living, (2) his relation to his fellow man, (3) his conquest of nature, (4) the urge to expression, and (5) his relation to a god. In other words, we try to give an understanding of the economic life, government and law, science, art,

literature, music and religion. Only enough political history is taught to give background for the cultural aspects, but in the modern period, such subjects as nationalism, democracy, socialism, and imperialism must of necessity be stressed in order to give an adequate picture of the present day world.

The history of music is taught throughout the year by a member of the school of music who gives about twelve lessons for the first semester and eighteen the second semester. Besides this, there is a listening hour once a week at which the girls hear records of the great music of the period they are studying. The music parallels as closely as possible the period being taught in the regular history classes. The head of the art department gives lectures on art appreciation and explains the principles of classicism, romanticism, realism as we take up each subject. Much use is made of lantern slides and pictures. The history of art—painting, sculpture, architecture, and minor arts—is taught by the history staff. The English department

also coöperates by giving talks at various times on such men as Chaucer or Schiller, or on the trends in modern American literature. The head of the college theater has twice put on a Greek play—*Antigone* and *Iphigenia in Taurus*. They were so well done that Greek drama became alive for the girls. The splendid coöperation of the other departments has, we feel, been largely responsible for the success of the work.

Three, and sometimes four, members of the staff teach the history of civilization course and we have six sections averaging twenty-five in number, besides a repeat section each semester. We each make out our own monthly tests which are of the discussion type, but work together on one final examination for each term of the comprehensive type. We give without warning short false-true, completion, or identification tests throughout the year so that the students will get practice in taking this kind of test.

Each semester we give to the students mimeographed assignment sheets with page references for the required reading for the history, music, and art. For the first semester of this year we wrote a brief syllabus giving the important facts and the high points in the history of each big period. We teach correct form for keeping a notebook and how to take notes on collateral reading. We try to coöperate with the English department in teaching spelling, pronunciation and correct writing. Needless to say, we also teach geography.

The matter of a satisfactory text has been one of great concern to us. We have tried three, and found them all wanting. Either they include too much irrelevant material, or they put the major emphasis on politics, or the vocabulary is too difficult for our freshmen. We now use a text for first semester only, which goes through the Middle Ages, and depend upon collateral reading entirely for the second half of the course. We have duplicate copies of Munro-Sontag, *The Middle Ages*; Achorn, *European Civilization and Politics Since 1815*; Hayes, *A Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe*, Volume I; Gardner, *Art Through the Ages*; and several music books. These are kept in a special room in the freshman dormitory which is open at certain hours. In the main library we have several shelves near the reserve desk on which are placed all the books on the subject we are studying. These are marked *Do Not Circulate*, so that they can not be taken out of the library except at night. The girls use these at any time during library hours and for as long as they need them. This seems more satisfactory than putting such a large number of books on reserve.

No set number of pages is required for collateral reading, but the superior student is expected to read more than the others, and especially in source material. Each girl is required to read one Greek play;

and in Roman literature, from at least three out of five different fields—history, satire, poetry, orations, and prose writings such as Apuleius and Petronius; in the Middle Ages, *Aucassin and Nicolette* or *Tristram and Iseult*. In the Renaissance period we recommend such books as Cellini's *Autobiography*, Erasmus, *Praise of Folly*, Cervantes, *Don Quixote*; and for the age of Louis XIV, a play or the letters of Madame de Sévigné. The girls usually pick out Molière to read and thoroughly enjoy his wit. When it comes to realism and romanticism the list is longer, of course, and they have more choice. Surprisingly enough, they enjoy reading realism more than romanticism. For the superior student we have, occasionally, on a purely voluntary basis, invited groups to get together to read a play out loud. The girls have seemed to enjoy this a great deal when we have tried it. The only difficulty has been in finding a convenient time.

One class produced a Greek play which they had read in class. It was not a finished production, of course, and sheets were used for costumes, but they had a much finer appreciation of Greek drama for having done it. Another class wrote a play based on the life of St. Thomas à Becket, and produced it. They made the costumes, managed the lights, and staged it by themselves. One of the assignments given by the art teacher was for a group of not more than three from each class to put on a tableau suggested by scenes on the Greek vases. Again they used sheets, and the audience, composed of all the classes, voted on the tableau considered the best. Another art assignment was to draw, in the manner of the early Christian artist, any picture that illustrated a campus scene or activity. Then the girls were asked to do it over in dark and light in order to give emphasis to the important parts. A few of the better ones were selected and the girls who had done them were allowed to make them into block prints made on linoleum. One girl, who is an art student, then did her design of dancing girls in blue on china silk, and it was most attractive.

We have had many girls when they came to their senior year say that the history of civilization course was the most valuable course they had taken in their whole college career. It gives them a background for many other courses which they take in languages, history, English, and even science. It gives them real pleasure to see things in the movies which they know about. Our classes had just finished studying eighteenth century England when "Lloyd's of London" came to town, and you could hear exclamations of appreciation over the theater at the reference to the Chippendale furniture, and over the introduction of Franklin to Boswell in the Coffee House. They enjoyed George Arliss in "Disraeli" after they had become acquainted with him in studying the spread

of democracy in nineteenth century England. A number of them read and were most enthusiastic about Maurois' *Disraeli*. A high school girl who was planning to come to college for the home economics course went abroad with a group of girls, and said that when she got back she couldn't help but notice that the girls who had taken the course in history of civilization knew a great deal more about Gothic architecture and the treasures in the art museums than the other girls did. So she changed her plans in order to get in the history of civilization course. We feel, too, that the course is a real help to the sophomores who have had it, when they take the Coöperative Gen-

eral Culture Test, although, naturally, many facts have escaped their memory by that time.

Mr. Sigmund Spaeth was on our campus for a series of music lectures last year, and our freshmen were amazed that they already knew so much of what he said. It was just what they had been studying in the music lectures and the listening hours.

We feel, sometimes, that we include too much in the course, that we jump from one subject to the next too rapidly, but we try to give the students a knowledge and appreciation of the finer things in life that any cultured person should have. We feel that it opens up a new world to many of them.

Can Social Service Ever Be Effective?

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New York City

Our newspapers today are full of information regarding relief measures. The alphabet has been worked to death to furnish initials for the various projects to aid the needy. The government has extended its functions tremendously in its attempt to remedy the effects of the depression. The administration in power is spending a fabulous amount of money which sooner or later has to be met by taxation. Thus the public, whether it wishes to or not, is participating in social service.

To date the entrance of the state into this field has not answered the question—can social service ever be effective? In consideration of this problem, social service must be thought of, both as it is understood at present and with regard to its future potentialities. In fact, if social service means to justify its existence it must turn the spotlight not only on its defects, but also on the remedy. It can no longer afford to proceed blindfolded.

Unquestionably the purpose of social service is to better the world in which we live. But as it is now construed, it serves primarily only to straighten out the lives of a certain group, namely the poverty stricken. It deals not only with them, but with their environment. That is, it includes numerous institutions such as hospitals, settlements, and so forth which help through the care they give rather than by direct financial assistance. Generally speaking then, the instruments of social service are the welfare organizations, private and public. This means that the picture of relief is exceedingly variegated. In a sense this is deceptive because many of the separate organizations are very beneficial; yet as a

whole the machinery fails. The rosy surface presented by reports containing carefully worked out statistics covers a system rotten at the core. For this reason social service today is a panacea not a solution for the ills of mankind.

There are two definite limitations to social service. The first is the availability of funds. Money is collected in two ways: either through voluntary contributions or voted taxation. Until recently the former has been the prevailing method, that is, the bulk of social service was privately operated and maintained. The distinction between social service and charity was not determined by the economic factor which for the most part depended upon individual generosity. Recently, however, the government has stepped in with its enormous resources. It has organized a relief program which may eventually swallow up the private enterprises altogether. This change was considered essential if social service was to survive at all. The need was too great to be met otherwise. What the outcome will be only time can tell, but so far the financial status is still uncertain. This precarious situation exists because social service is dependent upon the personal interest of philanthropists or politicians. Under these circumstances it makes no difference whether it functions through private auspices or public administration.

The second limitation is the fact that social service confines itself to one class: the under-privileged. In helping these people social service distinguishes itself from charity by its approach. Instead of giving out alms indiscriminately, it investigates the need beforehand. Furthermore its efforts do not always

involve direct monetary assistance. Sometimes the conditions to be remedied are not economic in origin. The economic pressure cannot be denied, but it is not always the most important factor. The question then arises—if social service claims to attack the social ills, how can it do so by dealing only with a portion of our population?

It will, of course, be said that social service reaches those unable to pay for such service. Even this statement is inexact. There are many who cannot afford comparable benefits, yet are ineligible for social service. A few examples will illustrate what I mean without going into the details of these regulations.

For instance, in the suburbs children band together to play war or gangster games. In order to prevent this, social service sets up settlements and recreation playgrounds. War is too moot a problem to be generally discussed by social service. But it claims that such means will eliminate crime eventually. How does this theory apply to one group of children and not another? To insist that these children of whom I speak come from better stock and do not live under the same slum conditions is not entirely reasonable. The assumption is that the exuberance of youth must be guided into useful channels. This is not being done when children are permitted toy guns for mock murders and battles. Perhaps if the world took as much interest in moral as in economic issues social service would not make so many futile gestures.

Take another question, that of health. The very poor receive excellent care in the hospital clinics and wards. Whatever else is lacking, it is possible for them to get expert medical attention. On the other hand the middle class often suffers. Members of this group cannot pay the fees of the prosperous nor are they accepted by social service. Considered the very backbone of our nation, they remain a forgotten class. Only when they become destitute is society ready to aid them. Is it any wonder that rebellion stirs in their hearts? Can we say that social service is fair when it excludes those unable to afford proper treatment?

So far, I have spoken of the restrictions of social service. Now it is time to analyze the actual workings themselves. In its development social service has grown out of all proportion to its original form. Like a tree it has shot out branches in every direction. Lately it has expanded by leaps and bounds until there is hardly a phase of our existence which is not touched by it in some way. The skeleton for this tremendous spread was formed before the federal government stepped on the stage; already the tendency towards great expansion was apparent. The "powers that be" today cannot be held to account for such big undertakings as the medical centers and

the relief agencies. Perhaps it is no wonder then that the machinery itself is so cumbersome. This would not matter if the unwieldiness did not bring about actual harm.

On the whole, social service has always retained a "laissez faire" policy. The attitude has been that since private individuals have donated the money out of the kindness of their hearts, no one should interfere with the way they spent it. Gradually, however, the state did commence a certain amount of supervision, dimly realizing that human lives were more important than cash. Perhaps because of the tremendous scope of this problem, this intervention has not gone far enough. In many cases there are rules, but there is no power to enforce them.

To be more specific, take the situation in New York. There are about a hundred day nurseries in the city. Judging by the variety in standards there is very little control. I saw some a few years ago that had no semblance of decency, yet so far as I know they were never closed for this reason. To be sure, day nurseries have to be licensed and are regularly inspected. The doctor from the Board of Health makes his recommendations. But how often does anything happen when they are not followed?

Unfortunately, with the spread of social service, it has failed to plan. So far, practically no attempt has been made to unify the program as a whole. Instead, each organization has been allowed to manage its own affairs. Naturally under the circumstances the trend has been towards selfishness. Every society is inclined to think of its own budget primarily. This often causes preventable waste. Even if the money is spent with circumspection it is not done with the whole picture in view. The consequences are that the burden is shifted and this means duplication of work. Three or four investigations may be made of the same case; people may be transferred unnecessarily from one institution to another.

I know of one sick old woman who has gone from a hospital where she was taken when acutely ill to another for chronic cases, thence to a convalescent home where she remains on sufferance awaiting her admission to a home for aged. At each step there has been a separate check-up, although for several years she and her husband have received relief. The saddest part of this lack of coöperation is the hardship caused. Who can measure the harm that it has done this old lady to be shifted from pillar to post? Who can fathom how much individuals suffer mentally when forced to wait for relief? Even when it finally comes, it does not pay back debts. The endless delays in social service cause untold misery which may be responsible for the fact that so many never become independent again. Their spirit has been broken by the system.

It is easy to see how red tape can be demoralizing. Social service by its rulings can defeat its own purpose. A very apt example is that of work relief. Generally speaking, to obtain these jobs an individual has to be declared a pauper. Sometimes this means first receiving home relief. Is this not capitalizing improvidence? For quite obviously the person with no other support than his own earning powers needs employment whether or not he has some small savings left. Is it fair to refuse aid to a girl living at home because her father has been careful enough to provide for his future? Should a niece be rejected because her aunt with whom she does not live has a bank account? No wonder there is bluff which calls for more and more investigation and consequent expense!

From what I have already said it is quite evident that social service does not delve deeply enough into the conditions of life. Its limitations do not permit it to be a real influence. By concerning itself principally with straightening out those families which come to its attention it can do good only in a very limited way. As a matter of fact, it may even be harmful as I have shown. To provide special organizations to help the underprivileged is admirable. But it is not enough to be of lasting benefit to the world in general. One of the greatest faults of social service is that it runs counter to its own aims through apathy.

For instance, in spite of all the talk about housing, the slums remain both an eyesore and a breeder of bad social habits. The reason is obvious. New houses are built, but the rents are too high for the poor. It is not always a question of earnings; very often these families are subsidized by social service. I know of one couple on relief who had to use part of their food allowance to pay the rent on anything but a model apartment. Is this consistent with recommending slum clearance?

It is the same with wages. Bills for minimum wage laws may be backed by individuals interested in social service, but no concentrated general effort is made. The moment a client of social service finds a job, this amount is subtracted from the entire budget. The size of the salary is a minor consideration. As for wages, on the outside this is no concern of social service at all. That is, social service talks, but does not agitate against sweat shop conditions. How can it be effective when it steers clear of such live issues?

The defects of social service, then, are manifold. Yet their foundation can be summed up in a few words. Social service has failed because it has not awakened a sense of social consciousness. Due to avoiding responsibility it has not succeeded in making a real dent in our social customs. So long as it is possible for social service to be a hobby of the

rich, a tool of the politician and a business for the professional social service worker, this will continue. The fault lies not so much in itself as in that it has not developed a real love of humanity. If this is true in the ranks, it is even more so outside. There are still too many people happy in their own ignorance. They do not worry about their less fortunate fellow creatures because they are hardly aware of their existence. Why should they be bothered about how the other half lives? That is none of their business. So far social service has done little to change this attitude.

The answer may be that this is all out of the province of social service. After all the citizen by and large has no wish to be a world reformer. That is quite true, but as I have shown the bill must be paid by the taxpayer. Can he deny that he is interested in seeing his money wisely spent? What point is there in having such an immense relief program if it does not develop the potentialities of social service? The country has assumed an investment of human material. Like any other investment this should be carefully watched. It is in this light that remedying social service must be analyzed.

Social service has to its credit many real achievements. Our land is dotted with institutions founded by this or that benefactor. Now that the state has become responsible for so much of the relief, it too is adding its quota. Public works have grown apace since social service has become part of the administration. Due to this status it has at its beck and call the victims of the depression. No wonder, then, that the effects are visible. Look at the number of playgrounds opened in New York alone as one item. Social service has undeniably lightened the burden of many people. But this does not change my contention. In order to be an effective force for the improvement of mankind it must change considerably.

There are two ways that social service must broaden its emphasis. The first is the financial aspect. To taxpayers who will say that it spends too much already, I hasten to state that I am not advocating a greater outlay. What I mean is that the whole balance sheet must be considered. That is, instead of each organization trying to save on its own budget, it must think of the total expense involved. Perhaps then there would be less rivalry in the sense of robbing Peter to pay Paul.

The second way is equally important. Social service can no longer afford to confine itself to one class. Somehow it must manage to make its benefits available to everybody. It is only by opening its doors wide that the disgrace attached to social service will be eliminated. In a democracy it is hardly reasonable to say that receiving the essentials of life is pauperizing. Nobody investigates the status of a public school pupil. Why should there be so much hue and cry

about people taking advantage of social service?

Essential as it is for social service to enlarge its sphere, it will find this utterly futile unless it learns to plan more carefully. The fact of whether the funds come from private sources or public is simply one of expediency. It is highly probable that both methods will be used for some time in this country. The point is that in the entire picture there should not be such a definite separation. For instance, when relief was extended under the state no attempt was made to handle it through the existing agencies. Instead a new set-up was formed. When many private organizations had to close for lack of funds, nothing was done about it. Would it not have been more sensible to keep them open even if the government had to subsidize them? To go a step further, why cannot more be done through the channels of ordinary life? Why must day nurseries, for example, be a separate institution from the homes themselves? Could they not be included in low priced apartment houses?

In other words, the whole picture of social service should be simplified. It should not be so distinctly apart from every other phase of our life. Not only should the chain of organizations be strongly welded, but nobody aided by social service should feel like a culprit as a result. In looking after the helpless, society is only doing its duty. Why must they be made to suffer endless humiliation? Social service is no more than a means to provide decency for those who cannot afford it. Granted, some do not deserve it. Many worthless individuals inherit money, but nobody takes it away as a consequence. The task of social service is to better conditions, not to reform its clients.

This means that social service must include very much more than it does. It is hardly worth while to organize huge relief programs when side by side business is paying shocking wages. Social service must concern itself with such issues in more than the casual way it does at present. It will be said that the now defunct NRA tried to do just this and failed. But in reality this was only a sporadic effort. At the very time it was flourishing, social service itself was supporting many a family on pitifully small allowances. Relief budgets are always figured out to the last penny by experts. Granted that they are adequate, can the recipients be expected to know enough to balance them? Remember, many of them come to social service in the first place just because they are improvident. The point is that even when directed by the government social service cannot afford to throw stones while it is living in a glass house. The most impressive lesson is a good example. This cannot be forgotten if social service intends to lead by its influence.

In the United States we have developed a complex

civilization. There are no acknowledged class distinctions, nevertheless they are evident. Money plays a great part in this. Social service heretofore has been dependent upon the generosity of the wealthy. Only recently has this field been invaded to such a great extent by official agencies. Although the status has changed, nothing differs in the attitude behind it. That is, the clients of social service are still receiving charity. They are set apart as a separate class, not because they are unfortunate, but because they lack cash. The one factor which stands out above others is that they must be relieved at some one's expense; this weighs far more heavily than the wrong conditions surrounding them. Society is playing the kindly act not assuming its rightful responsibility. It is this feeling that social service must attack.

Only when the country at large realizes that it owes a decent existence to everybody will it have what is called social consciousness. Without this, social service can never be effective because it encourages barriers between different groups of the population. To classify people as the givers and the getters is sure to cause antagonism. This is what social service is doing. That is why so far it has failed on the whole even though it has helped many.

To prophesy what will happen in the next few years is impossible. Europe is trying various political, economic and social systems. Many Americans are ready to adopt one or the other over here. It is not beyond the realms of possibility that there may be some upheaval. This in itself will not be a solution but a side issue. Social consciousness is not a question of our political allegiance, our economic convictions or our social position. It goes much deeper than this into our very character. It is founded not on "rah rah" patriotism but a true love of our nation and all humanity. That is, there is no tinge of the martial spirit in social consciousness.

If social service is to be effective, then, it must start its own propaganda. To awaken a social consciousness in the population means much more than relieving the needy. Placating those who are down-trodden should not be a task of condescension. But it is almost impossible to keep this out of social service with its present foundation. That is, the change must come not in what it does but in the underlying motive. From babyhood, children must be trained in their attitude towards others. Education in the broadest sense starts in the cradle. The same applies to the spread of any influence. Always we must think of the bringing up of children in view not only of their own future but that of society. This is why I insist that social service can survive only if it includes the broader emphasis of developing social consciousness.

My cry then is not against social service itself but its foundation. So far it has draped with gorgeous

clothes a rotten body. The problem of our social ills must be attacked at the core, not on the surface. For this battle all hands must be enlisted. To say that this is an impossible demand is not facing conditions of the present. There is no reason why whole countries cannot be molded in one direction. To deny the possibility of doing this is rank stupidity in view of such experiments as fascism in Italy and sovietism in Russia. Whether or not one agrees with their theories the fact remains that these countries have put across their program among their own people.

It may be claimed that these systems were thrust on nations so "down and out" that they were non-resistant. Granted that this was true at first, there is more to the present situation. The leaders have established their rule not only on force but on injecting their doctrines into the minds of the new generation. They have had enough sense to realize that it is possible to mold character. Have we less faith in this respect than they have?

Certainly social service is based on the very opposite assumption. In a sense it has grown out of the reforming spirit. That this spirit has often before been led astray is evident if we know our history. It has never prevented strife between nations because so far it has not created a feeling of real kinship between all humanity. Without this sense of social consciousness any lasting betterment to the world is impossible.

Does the picture look utterly hopeless then? By no

means, although many people are inclined to be pig-headed about it. Social service has its task cut out for it which is to make the whole population realize that such activities belong to the machinery of our social system. According to Marquis W. Childs, this has already been done in Sweden. It is worth mentioning too that the transition has been peaceful, inwardly and outwardly. The Swedish people held themselves aloof from the general conflagration of the World War and in their reconstruction have managed to keep themselves free from any violent upheavals, political, economic or social. Their program has been planned intelligently by a government that feels responsible for every citizen. This country illustrates very clearly just what I mean.

In order to be a real influence, then, social service must permeate our whole social structure. In building for the future it must strive to develop social consciousness as an integral part of our social heritage. Under these circumstances social service can become a real power in our civilization adding to the sum total of human happiness within our borders and possibly eventually throughout the world. The means of social service should be utilized to destroy the seeds of class antagonism and warfare. Therefore it must include all movements connected with world peace and betterment. The success of social service, then, depends not on its tools, but on whether it can awaken in people's souls a sense of responsibility for one another.

The St. Louis Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies

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The seventeenth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held at the Hotel Jefferson, St. Louis, Missouri, November 26 and 27, 1937. Dean Alphonse Schwitalla, of the School of Medicine, St. Louis University, opened the convention on Friday morning, with a discussion on "Social Trends and Educational Problems." Dean Schwitalla pointed out that one of the major trends in contemporary life is the socialization of various activities hitherto provided by private initiative. The individual is no longer the sum and substance of present-day culture. While admitting that some socialization is desirable, he defended private initiative and self-

reliance. Education must provide the compensation for the removal of self-reliance and discipline. He urged a greater emphasis on personal relationship with the student. Dean Schwitalla was followed by Dr. Theophil Irion, University of Missouri, who spoke on "Social Studies from the Viewpoint of the Learner." He suggested that students be stimulated to search for facts in order that the knowledge obtained would have more significance. Dean Irion deplored the fact that knowledge is presented ready-made. He pointed out, however, that education is more than just gathering information; this knowledge must function and carry over into life activity.

This general session was followed by five informal luncheon discussions. Eldon W. Mason, Marshall High School, Minneapolis, discussed "Utilizing Community Resources in Teaching the Social Studies." He described the plan of field trips conducted for high school students in his city. He declared such trips necessary to get students "out of an Alice-in-Wonderland understanding of that world." "While we may revere the cloistered pedagogue of another day, he has no place in a world in which the tempo is so rapid. The social studies teacher must do at least two things: bring the world into the classroom, and make a classroom of the outside world by going out in company with students to that world." John B. Dail of Detroit, Myrtle Roberts of Dallas, and E. F. Hartford of Louisville, described the social studies teachers organizations within their respective areas. Mr. Hartford pointed out that one of the values of teachers groups is to bring teachers to a realization of the significance of their work in the whole task of education in a democracy. Dr. Erling Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University, described the editorial policy of *Social Education*.

In a discussion on "Developing an Awareness of Propaganda Through Current Events," Professor William W. Biddle, Teachers College, Milwaukee, declared that "the teaching of skepticism should be a major aim of education." "Stress should be placed upon an honest search for all pertinent facts on controversial issues, upon a disinterested examination of all proposed solutions to contemporary problems, and upon the attitude of suspended judgment." These are characteristic of the skepticism of the scientist. To encourage skepticism, he maintained a teacher should make an effort to bring to the attention of his students all information on modern issues, gathered from various sources expressing a wide variety of social philosophies. "A desirable approach to the problem is to be found in the creation of suspicion toward propaganda and an ability to identify the more emotional and less rational devices used." In the final luncheon of the day Dr. Howard E. Wilson, School of Education, Harvard University, described the survey of social studies in New York state. Several thousand students were tested in regard to their skills, civic attitudes, fundamental understandings and concepts, and knowledge concerning current events and historical facts. In all cases the students were "lamentably ignorant"—even about their own communities. Dr. Wilson, however, stressed the technique rather than the results of the survey. "A survey of social studies instruction which begins from the point of view of what aspects of social competence we want pupils to have, and analyzes the work of the schools in direct relation to that competence, produces results which are strikingly more significant than the results of merely measuring pupils' memory

of what they have been taught in classrooms. If teachers individually and school systems coöperatively will undertake to evaluate outcomes in terms of social competence, we may indeed make distinct progress in social studies instruction in the coming years."

The afternoon program consisted of three sectional meetings dealing with "The Elementary Program," "Units in the Eleventh and Twelfth Grades," and "The Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association." In the elementary school session Katherine Clark, Supervisor of Reading of the Coöperating Schools of St. Louis county, urged the use of recreational reading materials to aid in the enrichment of experience and in the development of understandings. Alice B. Grannis, Winona State Teachers College, stated that specimen units have distinct value to teachers handicapped by very limited and inaccessible library facilities. The lack of agreement among recent publications dealing with materials for the social studies and the variety of interpretations of terms used has also created the need for specimen units. The "eternal harping on differences in details" in the world of education was condemned by Mary G. Kelty, Chicago. To eliminate some differences she suggested an integration of reading, language, and art with the social studies.

In the secondary school meeting, W. P. Beard of the Forest Service, United States Conservation of Agriculture, suggested several objectives in conservation education. "Conservation is largely a problem of land use," he declared. "Our blundering land policies of the past wherein land resources were pushed into private ownership are now coming home to roost." He proposed that we replace much of sentimentalism about conservation with facts and understandings and realize that conservation is dependent upon natural laws. Any program, he believed, implies some sort of public control—either government ownership, regulation, or coöperation with private owners. Nelle E. Bowman, Tulsa, observed that students in the sixth to tenth grades lack a realistic understanding of international issues. Students must come to realize that nations do not fight because they like war, but because the people believe that force is the only method by which justice may be secured. A crusade for international justice is a better antidote for war than any crusade for peace. Teachers must provide experiences by which narrow pupil provincialism is destroyed. A complete unit on "Housing" was presented by A. W. Troelstrup of Winnetka. This unit stressed an utilization of community resources and an integration of materials from several fields of subject matter.

Perhaps the liveliest meeting of the afternoon occurred at the session devoted to the "Progressive Education Eight Year Study." After Laura Ullrick of Winnetka, Hazel M. Cornell of Francis W. Parker

School, Chicago, and G. H. V. Melone of John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri, reported on the social studies in their respective schools, Dr. C. A. Phillips of the University of Missouri, claimed that according to those reports, these progressive schools were practically no different from, nor better than the traditional school.

The dinner meeting was held Friday evening with Dr. A. C. Krey of Minnesota and Dr. Elmer Ellis of Missouri as speakers. Dr. Krey outlined the decline of the Roman Empire and the medieval culture to illustrate what might happen if education were abandoned in the modern world. This he described as "The Greatest Educational Experiment in the World." "A whole society like our own, without any formal education whatsoever might yield interesting results. Our society, which has advanced so much farther than any other known society in the direction of universal education, would surely offer the best opportunity for comparison. The question is what would happen if a society as large as ours should try the experiment of doing away with education altogether." The results of the decline of education in the Roman Empire indicate, he thought, what would be the fate of our civilization.

The presidential address was made by Dr. Ellis who spoke on "The Dilemma of the Social Studies Teacher." This dilemma, he stated, is "the question of the kind of philosophy of teaching to use in helping young citizens prepare to meet the perplexing needs of the present and future American society." This problem has been intensified by the sharpening of the economic conflict since 1929. With the solid ground of long accepted theories cut out from under us by rapidly changing conditions, "What can we teach, as conclusions, beyond the areas where scholars agree?" One general rule was laid down by Dr. Ellis: "that only those conclusions which are well grounded in scholarship be assumed as true . . . to protect students from generalizations that have no substantial foundation." He then raised the questions—What specific attitudes can we teach? Can we indoctrinate with the American ideals and traditions of government? His answer was that the democratic tradition is not a set of closed dogma that can be indoctrinated, such as are the philosophies of the authoritarian states. Such an authoritarian system of education "essentially demands that controversial issues of today be decided, and treated thereafter as settled policies. Carried out on any extensive scale, this is a process of establishing a totalitarian society." Dr. Ellis proposed his alternative: "to keep the area of school indoctrination on public affairs very small; to arrange learning situations so that students are required to examine their concepts and prejudices within a framework of facts and generalizations supplied by modern scholarship; and to habituate them to use

the measures of value that fit every democratic tradition."

For the first time the annual *Yearbook* of the Council was presented and discussed at the November meeting. Both Dr. Rolla M. Tryon, Chicago, and Dr. Ernest Horn, Iowa, criticized the *Eighth Yearbook*, "The Contributions of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies," on the ground that the research summarized was very poor. Dr. Horn, however, pointed out that the fault lay not with the contributors to the volume, but with the type of educational research carried on. The *Yearbook* indicates, he believed, a pressing need for valid research on vital issues. Dr. Tryon suggested that a combination of the research with educational philosophy would have improved the volume. Dr. Edgar B. Wesley added that synthesis of the findings should have been included.

In the discussion on "Principles or Criteria for Organizing Social Studies Content," Dr. Paul Hanna, Leland Stanford University, stated that educational techniques must harmonize with social institutions. Dr. R. E. Swindler, University of Virginia, described both the functional and social process approaches to the organization of materials. Dr. Henry Kronenberg, University of Arkansas, suggested four criteria for organizing content: materials must make the world intelligible; must contribute to accurate thinking; must be workable in classroom practice under average conditions; and must help the child solve his own problems and administer to his needs. Dr. Wilson, as discussion leader, believed that both traditionalists and progressives are likely to make the same mistake—failure to focus subject matter (traditionalists) on the central objective; failure to focus activities (progressive) on the central objective. Neither subject matter nor activities are justified merely for its own sake.

The three speakers who dealt with "Improving the Training of Social Studies Teachers" emphasized the need for improvement in teacher education. The keynote of the inspirational meeting was stated by Professor Arthur C. Bining, University of Pennsylvania: "Teacher education is in the midst of a purging process. This is largely because of the new conception of the place of the teacher not only in the educational world but in society." This new conception, he said, requires that the teacher be given the opportunity for a broad and cultural education. Dr. Bining, then, described "The Five-Year Plan" of the School of Education, University of Pennsylvania. No certificate to teach can be gained until after five years of work; one semester of the fifth year is spent in full time work in supervised or cadet teaching. Entrance to the School of Education in the junior year is determined on the basis of scholastic standing, intellectual ability, personal characteristics, and physical

fitness. Professor Robert LaFollette, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, urged a greater uniformity in the preparation of teachers. All teachers, not only social studies teachers, should become aware of the ideals and heritage of the American people. More emphasis, he stated, must be placed on this phase of teacher training. The third speaker, Professor F. S. Rodkey, University of Illinois, asserted that "what we need imperatively in teacher training in the social studies is not so much comprehensive requirements as to preparatory courses, but the formulation of clearer and more uniform convictions than we now have relative to what is to be dealt with in teaching in social studies, and assurance of an interest in social studies that is in line with fundamental American ideals and principles." The meeting was a very successful one.

The last session of the morning centered in a discussion of methods on "Stimulating Interest and Learning in the Social Studies." Dr. D. C. Knowlton, New York University, contended that graphic materials are necessary to give a realizing sense of what life was and is like. "Time does not march on," was the assertion of Dr. Edwin W. Pahlow, Ohio State University. Such a mechanistic philosophy, he declared, implies that man is in the reviewing stand watching the world go by. It is man who marches on. To stimulate learning in history Dr. Pahlow suggested several techniques: the "inference exercise" to enable students to see the implications of things; the presentation of a real picture of what life was like, indicating that this could be done by examining the advertisements in any current magazine. He also stated that we must make human the people studied in history. Dr. Roy A. Price, Syracuse University,

described the results of a study made concerning teacher and pupil opinions of activities. Both teachers and pupils agreed as to what activities they thought were the most valuable. But pupils liked best to do those activities they ranked lowest in value.

Addresses by Harold S. Sloan, director of the Alfred S. Sloan Foundation for Economic Education, on "Effective Social Studies Teaching" and by Editor Irving Brant of the St. Louis *Star-Times* on "The Newspaper in Public Affairs" closed the convention. Mr. Sloan recommended as an antidote for propaganda a reëxamination of subject matter and careful segregation of factual material from opinion material. To make social science teaching more lasting, students must experience "vivid impressions of actual life conditions." He suggested field trips as one means of realizing such an objective. Teaching, he declared, will never be really effective until it has been made functional; this can be accomplished by approaching problems from the standpoint of the consumer.

At the business session, the executive committee proposed a constitutional amendment that the first vice-president no longer be solely responsible for the production of the *Yearbook*. This amendment will be voted on at the next meeting of the Council. It was announced by Miss Ruth West that the theme of the *Ninth Yearbook* will be the "Utilization of Community Resources." This volume will be discussed at the November, 1938 meeting to be held at Pittsburgh. The final business was the election of officers. The following were elected: Dr. C. C. Barnes, Detroit, president; Miss Ruth West, Spokane, first vice-president; and Dr. Howard Anderson, Cornell University, second vice-president.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

PROPAGANDA ANALYSIS

In October 1937 the first of the monthly letters called *Propaganda Analysis* was issued by the newly established Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc., 132 Morningside Drive, New York. The Institute has been organized on a non-profit basis "for scientific research in methods used by propagandists in influencing public opinion. It will conduct a continuous survey and analysis of propagandas. By objective and scientific scrutiny of the agencies, techniques, and devices utilized in the formation of pub-

lic opinion, it will seek to show how to recognize propaganda and appraise it."

Since citizens "cannot wait until they are twenty-one to learn how to decide issues unemotionally, critically, thoughtfully," they must begin to learn it during their high school years. Last summer, of 500 teachers from all states of the Union and all types of schools who were questioned, 98% "advocated a critical study in the schools of propaganda which would help prepare young people to function as intelligent citizens in discussing and voting on controversial issues. . . ."

In the November letter on "How to Detect Propaganda," seven devices were described which commonly are used to make emotional appeals, swaying people to accept the object of the propagandist. These seven devices are Name Calling, Glittering Generalities, Transfer, Testimonial, Plain Folks, Card Stacking, and Band Wagon. In the December letter several propaganda tests and antidotes were explained.

It is the hope of the Institute to become self-supporting. Its monthly letter costs two dollars a year and is designed especially for teachers, welfare workers, students, and others desiring objective appraisals of propaganda.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In *Educational Administration and Supervision* for September 1937, Mr. M. L. Altstetter summarizes "The Philosophy of Education of Two Hundred Secondary Schools," as one of the phases of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards (see *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, March and October, 1937). The two hundred coöperating schools substantially agreed upon this philosophy of education: "(a) Each pupil is an individual, differing from every other pupil in many important factors, intellectual, social, and personal; this individuality should be recognized and provided for by the school. (b) The pupil should be an active participant in the learning process and program, not simply a passive absorber of knowledge. (c) The educational program should be neither fixed in its nature nor narrow in its content; it should provide for pupil interests and needs as determined by the present and probable future; and it should recognize broad, general values rather than narrow, specific values. (d) The outcomes which should be chiefly emphasized are those traits which characterize or determine the good citizen both as an individual and as a member of society." In addition to these four principles, the schools agreed substantially "that all pupils of normal ability or development should complete the equivalent of a secondary-school education, the opportunity and cost in public schools being provided by a combination of local, state, and federal support under local or state control."

This careful poll of representative schools furnishes a base for building, in individual schools, concrete programs in harmony with an American philosophy of education. Mr. Altstetter's report makes the two following items more interesting.

HIGH-SCHOOL REORGANIZATION IN NEW YORK

The Committee on Articulation and Integration of the New York City School Board suggests "a sixteen-point program calling for the reorganization of high schools to meet the educational needs of a changing social order." The Committee recom-

mended the adjustment of the high-school system "to provide for the training of all children fifteen years of age and older, regardless of their interests and abilities." This recommendation is all the more significant in view of the Pennsylvania plan to hold all children in school until they are eighteen, beginning in September 1939. Some of the sixteen points of the New York City program are:

The senior high school should provide education for minors fifteen years old or upward.

Its curriculum should include courses leading to institutions of higher learning and to vocations and the industries.

Vocational and avocational aims should be emphasized as general objectives of education.

Training in proper habits and attitudes should continue, stressing the development of critical thinking, self-reliance, and initiative.

Personality, social relationship and citizenship should be further stressed.

Courses should be maintained at different levels of attainment in all subjects.

Extra-curricular activities should be continued, with emphasis on training for self-reliance.

Social, educational, and vocational guidance should be based on pupil ability, aptitude, and interest and should reflect social, community, and economic needs.

The record should include complete information of achievement, aims, interests, aptitudes, capabilities, abilities, health, personality, and character.

Curriculum planning, in-service training, and experimentation should be provided.

Diagnostic testing and resultant remedial teaching and guidance should be maintained as part of the educational program. The high school should be a center for community and civic welfare, helping to improve conditions for children and adults.

The program of the committee is given in *School and Society* for November 13, 1937.

QUESTIONS FOR PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

Dean Johnston of the University of Minnesota, in *Progressive Education* for November 1937, asks "Some Questions That Progressive Education Must Answer." He sees democracy in this country imperilled from within, and calls upon schools to clarify men's concepts about a democratic society and the relationships of its members. In the time of Jefferson certain families by their social position and ownership of property controlled the political and social machinery. Social justice was taken to mean depriving these people of their privileges by modifying the social and economic system. It ignored the ability of capable persons to render service who were born in

lower social positions. We today need to understand that the objective must be to fill places and grant opportunities solely on the basis of individual worth.

From pioneer days we inherit respect for those "hell-bent for the top of the pile and the devil take those over whom they climb." Such people seem ready to take anything they can get from society but grudge to give anything in return. Hence the hush-hush attitude toward crime and injustice, lobbying and propaganda for special privilege, log-rolling, evasion of taxes, "and a thousand and one everyday actions of ourselves and our neighbors." The nation must be led to understand the mutual interdependence of the individual and society. The school's service to the child must be based upon the return service of the individual to society. Most parents desire a school system that will "keep children from becoming criminals or paupers and enable their own children to stand on the shoulders of others and get more from the community than those others can." Training should be provided for abilities—manual, artistic, intellectual, etc.—not because the student can pay for it or wants it, but because he is to contribute in return to society through his activity in the field for which he is best fitted.

Mutuality of service, and not rivalry, should be inculcated, each doing that which he is best fitted for. This does not presume that society is static or that change is forbidden; it presumes merely that the competitive, devil-take-the-hindmost theory must go. The educational process becomes "an experimental and experiential process in the course of which the endowments and abilities of the child are discovered, his skills developed, direction, adaptation and refinement introduced in his personal behavior and his social responses, and the adjustment of the individual in his occupation and his orientation to the aims and ideals of his society gradually arrived at."

Is this not the way to attack the problems of society by intelligence and coöperation in place of partisanship and violence? "We determine the methods to be used in processing our ores by the quality and content of the ore. We treat different varieties of wheat in different ways in preparing them for bread. . . . [But] in the earlier period we put our young human beings through the moulding-press of dogmatic theology; later we dressed them in Victorian morality, and now we have given over the guidance of their development to the psychological compulsion of advertising, promotion and propaganda exercised by those groups who intend to profit from the shaping of character and the formation of habits."

WHAT MAKES GOOD CITIZENS?

Dr. Johnston's answer to this question, as summarized above, placed the burden upon the school. A correspondent of *The Times Educational Supple-*

ment of London (November 6, 1937) presents two practical difficulties. (1) How far can a pupil while still in school be equipped for duties and interests which lie some distance ahead? (2) Will the training received operate in later years under conditions vastly different from those where they were acquired? Knowledge will help, but the pupil needs also to be won "to a sense of community and to the rendering of service to the common good." To this end the development in recent years of "the corporate life of the school" is of great significance. The whole extra-curricular round of activities which make the school a corporate social entity and the child a participating member is an education for citizenship of a practical and efficient kind, but in a social set up simpler than that of the adult citizen. How much transfer there will be to adult community life, no one knows. This gulf between school and the larger, more complex community is a real one and should be bridged. Serving the larger community as part of school activity—at Thanksgiving time, during welfare drives, etc.—is the way, besides mere knowledge, although *consciousness* of the obligation is indispensable.

THE PROSPECT OF YOUTH

This subject was the theme of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for November 1937. The aim was "to focus attention upon the problems of youth and to facilitate the intelligent consideration of these problems." Among the problems discussed were the economic problem, youth and the church, sports, crime, leisure, health, marriage, and youth movements. A bibliography is appended, on "The Literature of Youth Problems."

THE ISLAND OF WHITE-HAIRED MONKEYS

In the November 1937 issue of *The Clearing House* Mr. M. T. Doherty of the Montclair (New Jersey) Senior High School deftly debunks several practices and concepts of modern education by describing the educational system which a pair of explorers found among the white-haired monkeys of a mythical isle. In tune with his satire, in the same issue of *The Clearing House* are the glossary on page 149 and "The Educational Whirl" on pp. 150 f. Professor Giddings used to say that one of the most healthful acts that a serious student could perform was occasionally to laugh at his subject and his endeavors. Possibly Dr. Giddings meant that the ability to laugh at oneself caused the sourness, the intolerance, and other insanities of the crank to crumble away.

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM

This problem is attracting a great deal of attention in many quarters. *The Congressional Digest* for November 1937 is devoted to it, surveying its history,

our national and state civil service systems, the British system, and current plans and projects in this country. There is included a pro and con discussion of the question, "Will the pending civil service bills bring real civil service reform?"

Professor Edgar Dawson of Hunter College has been a leader in emphasizing the importance of the problem of improving administrative personnel in a society like ours. Devoted to this cause is *Good Government*, the bi-monthly magazine of the National Civil Service Reform League, 521 Fifth Avenue, New York. In the September-October 1937 number is printed the address of the League's president, Robert L. Johnson, on "The Citizen's Interest in Good Government." The same issue presents, in somewhat abbreviated form, the article of Professor Dawson on "Teaching Administrative Management," which appeared in the September 1937 issue of *Social Education*.

CONTINUATIONS

In *Harper's Magazine* for December 1937 are three articles which continue earlier ones. Stuart Chase carries further his provocative discussion of semantics (begun in the November issue), calling for the "referents" of the terms used by economists. Teachers will find both a challenge and a question in "Word-Trouble Among the Economists."

Chester T. Crowell, who had described "Our Tax Jungle" in the November issue, now explains several forms of "Taxation not for Revenue." High-school students will not find his account too difficult to understand. Those who care to read more, should turn to David Cushman Coyle's fascinating book, *Why Pay Taxes*. Mr. Coyle is at present a consultant to the National Resources Committee.

Nathaniel Pfeffer follows up his article on the Sino-Japanese conflict in the September number ("Japan Counts the Cost") by arguing in "Convulsion in the Orient" that no matter how that conflict turns out, Japan will lose in the end. William H. Chamberlain, writing on "How Strong Is Japan" in *The Atlantic Monthly* for December 1937, agrees in many respects with Mr. Pfeffer's conclusions. He says that a quick victory will enable Japan to succeed on the military and political side at least, but if victory is delayed for a year or more "ultimate victory is likely to prove a Pyrrhic one."

THE TRIUMPH OF LAWLESSNESS

Norman Angell strongly condemns dictatorship, in the *Forum* for November 1937 ("The Triumph of Lawlessness"). His condemnation is coupled with intense moral indignation against the democratic nations of the world for their cowardice today. He says, "On the one side is immense energy, courage, boldness, a readiness to take great risks and undergo in-

finite suffering, an amazing capacity for sacrifice. It is the side of what but yesterday we should have regarded as unmitigated evil—of gross aggression and conquest, the destruction of freedom, of the right of self-government and democracy, the very enthronement of ruthless cruelty and oppression."

"On the other side, one sees drift, inertia, short-sightedness, division of council, disunity, the refusal to make material sacrifice. These are the qualities which we find on the side of what yesterday the whole world regarded as unquestionably good, on the side of order, of law, of peace, of democracy, of nationality, the right of a people to live its own life, to choose within limits its own form of government so long as it does not interfere with the same right of others, the principle of reciprocity and equality in human relations."

"These principles had been fully recognized. We believed that they had become the commonplaces of orderly European life, . . . indispensable to the stability of civilization. But nobody, it would seem, is prepared to fight for these principles, to suffer for them, to die for them, as millions are prepared to die in order to repudiate them, to bring them to naught."

Thus, Norman Angell excoriates the cowardice of England, France, and other nations desirous of peace, placing the blame principally on England, and acknowledging the direct action of Hitler, Mussolini, Franco, and the Japanese leaders. In his opinion the opportunity to establish peace and curb international banditry is nearly gone, and the menace of Japan becomes more and more disturbing. He traces developments briefly since 1931, showing how each treaty violation and other anarchic acts led to the next, while "the peaceful nations take it lying down."

He concludes bitterly, "A dictator commits that crime [waging war contrary to the Kellogg pact which outlawed war for purpose of national policy] in the most atrocious circumstances. What ought to be the attitude of nations if the moral sense of nations is to be maintained? And many of those who put reliance on the moral sense insist that the commission of the crime must make no difference at all in our relations with or attitude toward the criminal. Massacre, private assassination, piracy have been followed by flattery almost fawning in its quality. Cynical violation of a solemn oath, defiance of every moral law is followed by marks of respect, cordial friendship. Does anyone suppose that the moral sense or moral standards are going to survive such a process?"

IF FREEDOM MATTERS

Under this title Harold J. Laski presents his second article in the *Survey Graphic* for November 1937 on "Liberty in an Insecure World." In the first article Professor Laski had argued that there is a basic inconsistency between democracy and capitalism (see

THE SOCIAL STUDIES for December). In this article, he says that if freedom matters, "the private ownership of the means of production must go." This, baldly, is his thesis. He undertakes to show, bit by bit, how the present economic system is bringing in war and fascism as its fruits, because those who possess the economic privileges will not give them up and will sacrifice freedom to keep their privileges.

At the opposite pole from Dr. Laski is "A Primer of Capitalism" which appeared in the *Economic Forum* of October 1937. Members of an advertising firm, writers and artists, present literally a primer of the fundamentals of our economic system as they are taught in the textbooks of our schools. High school students will enjoy the article and its illustrations, will find clarified much that they have been learning, and yet will not suffer too much from the oversimplification of the presentation.

JUST WHAT ARE THESE "ISMS?"

Communism, Fascism, and Democratic Capitalism are compared, in parallel columns, by Professor Clyde R. Miller of Teachers College, Columbia University, in *The Clearing House* for October 1937. This comparison will be useful to pupils.

TECHNOLOGY ON THE FARM

Students of the farm problem will be helped by the observations made by government experts concerning technology and the future of agriculture. In *Consumers' Guide* for October 4, 1937, the article "Technology on the Farm" presents highlights from the report of the National Resources Committee entitled *Technological Trends and National Policy*.

In the same issue of *Consumers' Guide* there is a reprint of an address by Secretary of Agriculture Wallace, called "A Formula for Farmers and Consumers." Its theme is "the community of interest between the farmer and the consumer," between farmers and laboring men, and between farmers and business men."

THE MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

A regional meeting of the Association was held on November 26, 27, 1937, at Russell Sage College, Troy, New York. The principal theme of the sessions was foreign relations. On December 11 the annual fall meeting was held at New York University. Because several meetings of the Association had been scheduled for the fall and winter, this annual meeting was limited to a one-day session. The morning conference was on "The Relation of Visual-Auditory Materials to the Teaching of History and the Social Sciences." At the luncheon the topic of the address was "Propaganda Analysis and Education."

A third meeting of the Association was held on

December 27-29 at Philadelphia, in connection with the winter meetings of the American Historical Association and The National Council for the Social Studies. A fourth meeting is planned for February at Atlantic City, when the National Education Association and the National Council for the Social Studies will hold their winter conferences.

PHOTO-HISTORY

A large, richly illustrated quarterly of current history was launched in 1937 by *Photo History Magazine*, 155 E. 44 Street, New York (\$1 per year), with Richard Storrs Child as editor. The October-December issue on "War Is Here" has articles by the editor, George Seldes, and Frank C. Hanighen, to mention only a few. The large size of the magazine makes it possible to present photographs, charts, maps, and other illustrations in profusion. Current history around the world is its subject. History teachers will want to become acquainted with it.

GOING TO SCHOOL BY RADIO

Kermit Eby of Chicago, writing on this subject in the November 6, 1937 number of *School and Society*, points out several weaknesses of educating by radio. Among other things he says that education by radio requires listening but does not admit discussion or questioning the speaker. Radio education is not reciprocal, a sharing through mutual participation. Moreover it cannot make adjustments to the capacity of the individual pupil, but must treat all pupils alike. Mr. Eby concludes that radio education can supplement but it cannot displace our formal education.

FILMS

The Yellow Cruise is a sound film (16 mm. and 35 mm.) which records in three parts the Third Citroen-Haardt-Audouin-Dubreuil Expedition of 1929-1932 from Beirut to Peiping and Hanoi. The film should be especially useful to students of the geography of Asia. It shows the lands, natives, industries, cities, costumes, games, art, music, and other features of the daily life of the people of Syria, Persia, India, Thibet, and various parts of China and Indo-China. The accompanying narrative is in English. Articles describing various parts of this motor journey from the Mediterranean to the Yellow Sea appeared in *The National Geographic Magazine* for October 1931, March and November 1932, December 1933, October 1935, and January 1936. Maynard Owen Williams, representing the National Geographic Society, accompanied the expedition as a staff photographer.

Rental price, \$25. French Motion Picture Corp., 126 West 46 Street, New York.

Follow the White Marker is a silent, one-reel film (16 mm. and 35 mm.) prepared under the super-

vision of the Bureau of Mines of the United States Department of the Interior in order to further the cause of safety on the highways. It is loaned to schools and other civic organizations free, except for transportation charges, by the Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The subject of safety on the highways is receiving much attention, and even state courses of instruction in the subject are being issued. It is a necessary subject for the schools.

Getting Your Money's Worth deals with fraud and misrepresentation of goods sold to the public. It is to appear as a series of one reel, 16 mm. sound films, made under the technical supervision of Arthur Kallet. "The films show how articles and commodities are tested to determine their actual value—and advice is given on how to guard against misleading

advertising statements." The set is not yet ready for distribution.

The Section of Motion Pictures of the Pan-American Union of Washington, D.C. has a series of new talking films available for schools, picturing phases of Latin American life. Films are both 16 mm. and 35 mm. and are free, except for transportation charges. There are now available: *Rollin' Down to Mexico* (2 r.), *Black Gold Beyond the Rio Grande* (2 r.), *Native Arts of Old Mexico* (2 r.), *Where Seas Are Joined* (2 r.), *The Story of Bananas* (2 r.), *Havana the Siren* (2 r.), *Picturesque Guatemala* (2 r.), *The West Coast of Mexico* (2 r.), and *Ashore at Panama* (1 r., 35 mm.).

Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer have released *Servant of the People*, a 2-reel film showing the making of the Constitution.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

GENERAL

The Federal Union, A History of the United States to 1865. By John D. Hicks. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. xviii, 734. \$3.50.

This volume, we are told in a brief preface, is the result of giving a survey course in American history for eighteen years. Professor Hicks, of the University of Wisconsin has, in the compass of about 700 pages, attempted to draw a swift-moving picture of the development of the United States from their foundations as English colonies through the Civil War. His particular purpose is to illustrate the confederation of a group of independent units, and their amalgamation into a powerful federal union.

Professor Hicks provides, first, a survey of the colonial background of the American Revolution. He hardly does justice, however, to the constitutional and revolutionary debates on the theory of the British Empire, which featured the "Decade of Controversy" from 1764 to 1774. The military events of the Revolution are briefly brushed aside, and the reader is led into the "critical period" of the nation's history and the beginning of the new government.

The author's treatment of this period, the Jeffersonian era, the war of 1812, the "Reign of Andrew Jackson," and the subsequent period of debate on the slavery issue make it evident that he has been deeply impressed by the influence of the "West" in American history.

So great (and perhaps justly so) is the emphasis

on economic and political history, that Professor Hicks finds space for only a brief thirty-three pages on the "Awakening of the American Mind" and several paragraphs in other chapters in which to describe the growth of American culture: education, journalism, art and architecture, literature, and science. "Slavery and Abolition," "The Compromise of 1850," "The Impending Crisis," and "Secession," are followed by a cursory glance at the Civil War itself.

Considering the nature of the volume, and the students for whom it is written, the lengthy bibliography of secondary works and special material is very valuable and should supply more than ample material for supplementary reading.

WILLIAM DIAMOND

The Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

The Civil War and Reconstruction. By J. G. Randall, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xvii, 959. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Nearly twenty-five years ago, Professor Randall's *Confiscation of Property during the Civil War* marked the first fruits of his researches into Civil War history. His *Constitutional Problems under Lincoln*, which appeared in 1926, at once assumed, by reason of the maturity of its scholarship, a high place in the regard of historical students. Very fittingly, Professor Randall was selected to write the article upon Lincoln in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. The volume now under review is devoted principally to

Professor Randall's well-worked field of the Civil War; but, expanding in both directions, it includes several chapters on the period of Reconstruction, and several which lead up to secession and to the outbreak of hostilities in 1861. Moreover, in the field of the Civil War itself, Professor Randall in this book has not set as a limit the consideration of merely constitutional questions: it is rather his endeavor to round out his account of the great struggle into all its phases.

Apart from this difference in scope, another contrast with the author's *Constitutional Problems* at once impresses itself upon the reader. The earlier work was manifestly based upon an intensive research into the sources of a rather limited field. But in *The Civil War and Reconstruction* one finds an encyclopedic volume which, without loss of interest, summarizes not merely Professor Randall's researches, but those of the most diligent and painstaking writers of the last quarter century upon the myriad topics which the book covers. Sometimes the footnotes, which are found on the pages of the text and are not relegated to the end of the volume, are used to digest the monographs of others, but on the whole it is Professor Randall's plan to make their knowledge his own and to present it in the text. From this aspect the book will be of immense service as a reference work: indeed, it is hard to see why it should not be in every library and by all who wish to acquire clearly and with considerable detail a summary of recent scholarship in this field. Whenever there is a divergence of view among recent authors, as also in the deeper contrasts of partisan or sectional writings of earlier years, Professor Randall endeavors scrupulously to be impartial and unimpassioned. The price paid for these merits is the feeling—which the reader can hardly avoid—that in the earlier and in the later chapters especially, there is less of that tone of authority which comes from a direct handling of the sources and a presentation of the author's own view.

The volume, which has nearly nine hundred pages of text, is amply and well illustrated and presents several useful maps and graphs. There is an excellent bibliography, a distinguishing feature of which is the combination under the names of persons of both their published writings and biographies or memoirs concerning them.

The book's great length may stand in the way of its use as a text, but it is safe to predict that it will immediately become one of the most universal favorites for assignments in collateral reading. Professor Randall has once more placed thoughtful students under a deep obligation to him for his combination of sound scholarship with clarity of expression.

ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Recent Trends in Rural Planning. By W. E. Cole and H. P. Crowe. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xv, 579. Maps. \$3.50.

Here is a book that will be of real value to professional rural sociologists, for it presents the major phases of rural life in a thorough, comprehensive, and systematic manner. It will be of equal value to laymen who are interested in understanding the rural situation, particularly as affected by such recent developments as land-use planning, rural electrification, subsistence homesteading, the program of the Resettlement Administration (now the Farm Security Administration), and other governmental agencies.

Particularly valuable is the discussion of the experiences of the older countries of Europe and Asia in meeting problems of land depletion and surplus rural population, similar to those which are receiving attention in America today.

The book, as the title suggests, emphasizes rural planning as the means of conserving and developing the nation's rural resources, natural and human. The authors feel, and quite correctly, that recent trends in rural life make rural planning necessary for education, recreation, health, religion, and government no less than for crops and soil conservation.

Those interested in rural sociology will find this textbook a very valuable addition to the literature on modern rural America.

ARTHUR RAPER

Atlanta, Georgia

America's Yesterday. By F. Martin Brown. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1937. Pp. 319. Illustrated by 32 Pls., and many text figures. \$3.50.

Here is an interesting summary description of the outstanding archaeological centers of North, Central and South America. The author, who is not a professional anthropologist, reveals an intimate acquaintance with the most recent literature for each area and his efforts reflect in general the accepted opinions of the specialists in each field. Extensive travel has given the author many personal contacts with the cultures he describes. Attention is concentrated on the Basket-Makers, Pueblos and Mound-Builders of the United States; the Aztecs of Mexico; the Mayas, Chorotegas and Chibchas of Central America and adjacent regions; and the Inca and pre-Incan cultures of Peru. For the lay reader this book should have a wide appeal for it meets adequately an evergrowing popular demand for general reliable information on the prehistory of the New World. An important feature which should attract considerable interest is the list of the dates of building of Basket-Maker and Pueblo dwellings as determined by the recently developed study of tree rings.

The only important weaknesses of the book are

found in the introductory and concluding chapters in which the author reveals a lack of profound acquaintance with anthropological theories and controversies. These, however, are not of prime concern to the non-professional reader.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

Three Centuries of Harvard, 1636-1936. By S. E. Morison, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. viii, 512. Map. \$3.50.

The purpose of this little volume (not to be confused with the larger work still in progress by the same author) was to provide a brief popular history of Harvard College in time for the tercentennial celebrations of 1936. Not intended as a treatise or a work of reference, it was written primarily "to be read and enjoyed." The story is of broad interest and should appeal not only to those who have a personal attachment to the university, but to all students of the history of education; for whatever our private feelings of friendship or hostility toward Harvard, there can be no question as to the importance of its influence upon the development of education in the United States.

The author's attitude toward his subject could not, of course, be indifferent or wholly unbiased. He ap-

parently entertains, no doubt, that the university is at present superior in most respects to all others in America. And he boasts of its clean record in the matter of academic freedom when he declares that: "If experience can be our guide, there can be no doubt that the outstanding effective reason why Harvard pulled ahead . . . and reached her present eminence and stature, was her early and faithful adherence to that principle." Yet it cannot be said that loyalty to the institution with which he is affiliated blinds Mr. Morison to its faults, and his criticisms (particularly in regard to the past) are usually stern enough.

Of the various opinions which lend character to the book, two are in constant evidence. These are: (1) that Harvard College (as distinguished from the university) should be and largely is devoted to the business of turning out "gentlemen" of "liberal education"; and (2) that the classics are an indispensable part of such an education. On the latter point he is most insistent, declaring, in language which may sound quaint to the ear of a modern educational theorist, that "no equivalent to the classics, for mental training, cultural background, or solid satisfaction in after life, has yet been discovered." He adds: "It is hard saying, but Mr. Eliot, more than any other man, is responsible for the greatest educational crime of the century against American

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youth—depriving him of his classical heritage." "Classical heritage" seems, indeed, too large a phrase for describing the sample of Greek and Latin culture absorbed by the earlier collegiate generations through the reading of a few stock writings of antiquity.

But opinions vigorously held cannot lessen the value of a book of this nature. One can fairly complain only when on rare occasions the author lapses into trivial parlor judgments, as on page 261 where he observes that: "Henry Thoreau's themes and forerunners, which have been preserved and printed, give one the uncomfortable reflection that student English has declined in the last century." Surely, Thoreau's undergraduate writing no more represented the student English of his day than Mr. Morison's racy prose represents the style of contemporary American historians.

Mr. Morison seems incapable of composing a dull page. The volume makes delightful reading from beginning to end. Two portions which especially pleased this reviewer were the diverting account of John Hancock's treasure ship and the chapters grouped under the title, "The Augustan Age," from one of which the following descriptive gem is quoted: "A neighboring nuisance was the college pig-pen, where the Corporation's own porkers fought with rats for the commons garbage; for years the hideous clamor of a pig-killing was wont to disturb recitations in University. In the Yard proper, once cleared of unsightly and offensive objects, the elms were planted that reached their full beauty and maturity around 1910, when the elm-tree beetle attacked and killed them. Regular paths were laid out, and the mangy turf was teased into becoming a proper lawn."

G. PHILIP BAUER

Washington, D.C.

A History of American History. By Michael Kraus. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc. 1937. Pp. x, 607. \$3.75.

The present volume is a distinct and significant contribution to the growing bibliography of historiography. Although most of the material contained in it is not new, the work unquestionably has the merit of assembling much widely scattered information.

It covers the period from the days of the Northmen to the present—from the *Flateyjarbók* to Douglas S. Freeman. Indeed, one of its outstanding merits lies in the fact that it accords a cordial recognition to the rôle of the Northmen in American history. The *Saga of Eric the Red* and Adam of Bremen's *Description of the Northerly Lands* thus become Americana of considerable importance—a fact, it will be conceded, not generally appreciated.

An account of the Spanish and early English historians of America is given in the introductory chapter. The second is concerned with the seventeenth century from the days of John Smith, whose *True Rela-*

tion of such occurrences and accidents of noate as hath happened in Virginia was written in 1608, to Cotton Mather, whose *Magnalia Christi Americana*—"one of the most influential books in American historiography" (p. 66)—appeared in 1702.

The eighteenth century was marked by several important historical works: Cadwallader Colden's *History of the Five Indian Nations* (1727)—a book that demonstrated beyond a doubt the part taken by the Iroquois in colonial affairs—William Smith's *History of New York* (1757), and Thomas Hutchinson's *History of Massachusetts Bay* (1764).

However interesting the historiography of the revolutionary period may be, one senses that the author is rather glad to have it over with, and to enter upon the full stride of his narrative with the first half of the nineteenth century (ch. v). An account of the work of Peter Force, Jared Sparks, John Romeyn Brodhead, and others in gathering and publishing source material is followed by what must be considered the most important part of the book—a series of chapters dealing with the leading historians of the United States from Jared Sparks to the present. Full chapters are accorded to Francis Parkman and Henry Adams, whose work is described—correctly—as "one of the highest achievements in American historiography" (p. 335).

The concluding chapters take into consideration the several types of historical writing—e.g., "interpretive writings" as represented by Moses Coit Tyler, Charles A. Beard, or Vernon L. Parrington; "frontier and sectional historians" as Reuben Gold Thwaites, Theodore Roosevelt, or Frederick Jackson Turner; "biography" represented by Albert J. Beveridge, Gilbert Chinard, or Douglas S. Freeman. The latter's monumental *Robert E. Lee* "has no superior in the whole range of American biographical literature" (p. 571).

So much for the organization of the book. A few comments and criticisms may be made. The work gives ample evidence of mature, thoughtful scholarship combined with an ability to write in an interesting manner. Fairly complete annotation adds to the usefulness of the volume. No doubt the author regarded the footnotes as a sufficient guide, but a higher degree of scholarliness could have been attained by the addition of a detailed bibliography, organized in such a manner as to show the chronology as well as the authors and titles of all works considered. Portraits of some few of the leading figures would add somewhat to the human interest. Despite these criticisms the work unhesitatingly can be regarded as one of the truly significant contributions to historiography made during the twentieth century.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Society—A Textbook of Sociology. By R. M. MacIver. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1937. Pp. xxviii, 596. \$3.75.

To understand the implications of sociology are indeed difficult; to evaluate a book on the subject is equally difficult. But the author who himself states, "I hope this work will serve as a text for students, but I have not attempted to write down for them. Genuine students resent this too familiar process," has nevertheless presented a well organized, well analyzed, and well defined view of the subject.

He presents his material by evaluating the contrasting viewpoints of leading thinkers on the problems of sociology while subtly injecting his own. The work is a readable and challengeable survey of all the important aspects of the broad field of sociology. Its psychological and philosophical approach recommends the book for college students, and if used in connection with the many and excellent references which are included, the utility of the volume is inexhaustible.

The volume itself is divided into three parts. In the first part, the author takes great pains to define the terms as applied to the subject of sociology in a scientific manner. He then proceeds to the psychological and sociological implications of environment both geographical and total.

The second part deals with the social structure from the angle of the community and its component parts—families, social gatherings, organizations, etc., and the social code and mores by which these parts are governed.

The biological, cultural, and technological factors of social change, and how to interpret them and apply them to the problem resulting from a more evolved society is the subject treated in the third part.

A unique feature of the book is the questions and exercises at the end which are divided into two groups—those under A can be answered from a careful study of the text; those under B are suitable for the advanced student and require much clear thinking and use of extensive references which are also included in this volume under "Notes on Further Reading."

The author has achieved his purpose in presenting an understandable text on such an involved subject.

FANNIE L. JAFFE

Supervising Teacher

Atlantic City WPA Evening School

The Making of American Civilization. By Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937, Pp. xv, 932, xliii. Illustrated. \$2.20.

This text offers, as the title indicates, a well-rounded picture of American life, past and present.

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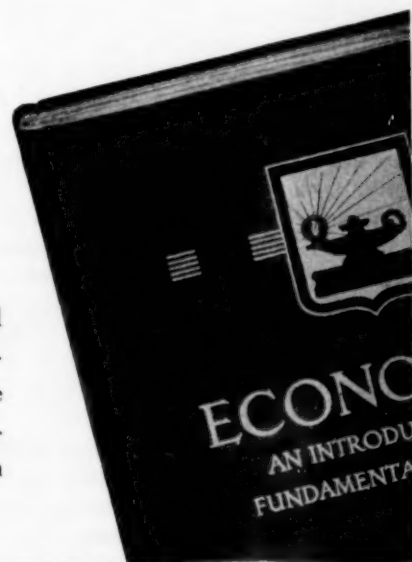
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At the end of each chapter there are certain learning and teaching aids, i.e., "Aids to Topical Study," "Topics for Discussion," "Research Topics" with page references in suitable books, and "References" for supplementary reading. The reviewer believes that the "Topics for Discussion" might have been presented to the student with more of a challenge and also that the bibliographies of supplementary reading are too brief. The authors also might have included some map exercises, which are an invaluable aid to the student in understanding many problems of history.

The organization of this text follows the traditional chronological development of history. This might be an objection offered by some teachers of American history as the unitary organization is favored by many. The chapters of the book are divided into nine parts, as follows: Part I—A New Nation Is Built in North America; Part II—The American Republic Strengthens Its Foundations; Part III—The Republic Expands and Becomes Democratic; Part IV—Social Conflict Shakes the Republic; Part V—The Industrial Revolution Covers the Continent; Part VI—American Interest in Foreign Affairs Becomes World-Wide; Part VII—Democracy Engages in Social Reform; Part VIII—World War Burst in upon Reforming Democracy; Part IX—Democracy Resumes Its Quest for the Ideal.

The physical appearance of the book is quite attractive. The print is legible and the topic of each paragraph is printed in bold-face type. There are 4 color plates, 260 black and white illustrations and 26 maps representing various developments in American history, domestic as well as international.

The viewpoint of this text strives to make the student conscious of the problems that face him today. And it is in this tone that the book closes.

MARY R. AMOS

Burlington High School
Burlington, New Jersey

We, the Citizens: a Functional Study in Community Civics. By J. L. Stockton and M. Beckenstein. Edited by Maxwell Frank. New York: College Entrance Book Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 530. Illustrated. \$1.88.

We, the Citizens, is an interestingly written textbook on civics. Its language is sufficiently simple to be understood by high school students. The authors,

being very practical teachers, have put together a book that will make the study of civics interesting as well as create civic-mindedness among its readers. A definite outline has been established in the attempt to inculcate in the minds of the students an appreciation for logical arrangement.

The questions and student activities at the end of each chapter can be developed and worked out by the students for they are within the range of their experiences. The use of cartoons, illustrations, photographs, charts, and diagrams make the work interesting and purposeful, for these have a direct bearing on the text.

The authors have brought the book up-to-date by giving a picture of the various governments as they are today. The print is good and the work coherent. The text is well rounded out by an extensive and practical bibliography at the end. The authors have also included vocabulary lists, examination questions, and constitutions for general use. The book is highly commended for its fine scholarship and practical application.

IRVIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

Our Country from the Air. By Edna E. Eison. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company, 1937. Pp. 224. Illustrated. \$1.20.

In this new type of supplementary geography book every left-hand page is a comprehensive full-page aerial view (7½ inches by 9½ inches). The pictures include cities, industrial plants, farms, forests, plains, mountains, mines, oceans, etc. Correlated with the pictures is interesting and informative text, describing the experiences of a group of young passengers on a coast-to-coast and a border-to-border airplane flight over the United States. The photographic illustrations are excellently done and the carefully prepared guide statements direct the reader's attention to the important aspects and details of the pictures. The work is a marked advance in the field of geography texts and is a contribution to visual education.

A. C. B.

Youth at the Wheel. By John J. Flaherty. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1937. Pp. 154. Illustrated. \$1.20.

This is a book on the timely and most vital subject of automobile safety. It is comprehensive in scope, interesting in treatment, excellent in style, and authoritative in content. It is designed to serve as a basal text for any intensive educational program dealing with traffic, driving, and highway safety for junior and senior high schools. The illustrations are carefully selected and the questions are thoughtfully worked out.

A. C. B.

Behave Yourself. By B. Allen and M. P. Briggs. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1937. Pp. 163. \$1.00.

Behave Yourself is a new book of etiquette for junior and senior high school students. It presents an old subject with an up-to-date approach. The aim of the little volume is to answer briefly but completely the questions that young people ask about the accepted rules of everyday social behavior. Snappy cartoons with pungent captions illustrate the text throughout. It may be used in courses in social relationships, courses in personal development, home-room or advisory period discussions, school club work or in special courses in etiquette.

BOOK NOTES

Following his volume, *Salem in the Seventeenth Century*, James Duncan Phillips has recently published *Salem in the Eighteenth Century* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. xix, 533. Illustrated, Maps. \$4.00). The book deals with the history of the second commercial city of Massachusetts. The life of a typical colonial town in many of its aspects is carefully traced. The story of the French and Indian wars and the problems pertaining thereto are well described. The progress of the Revolution, drawn largely from town records and original newspapers, shows how the British government changed a loyal people into rebellious subjects and how the radical element secured control of the town. Twice during the century Salem became the capital of Massachusetts. The author has caught the atmosphere of old Salem, even to the ocean breezes. The work is pleasantly written, and excellently illustrated.

H. S. Bennett's *Life on the English Manor: A Study of Peasant Conditions, 1150-1400* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xviii, 364. Illustrated. \$4.50) is a volume in the Cambridge Studies in Medieval Life and Thought. The book is a product of scholarship and is written in an interesting style. It well fits into the series which has set a high standard for historical accuracy. The author has built upon the foundations laid by Maitland and Vinogradoff. Much of the legal status of the early English villages is known, but little knowledge exists regarding their economic and social life. This is because of the lack of sources on the life of people of the time. The mass of documentary material for this period includes cartularies, assize rolls, manor rolls, and the like. The "annals of the poor" are almost non-existent. In spite of the fact that he was forced to piece together his picture from materials that "were never meant to serve such a purpose," the author has succeeded admirably in portraying realistically life on the English manor and in adding to our knowledge of it.

Not so Long Ago, by Cecil K. Drinker (New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. xii, 183. Illustrated. \$3.50), is a chronicle of medicine and doctors in eighteenth century Philadelphia. The author's great-great-grandmother, Elizabeth Drinker, was a member of a prosperous family in colonial Philadelphia. She kept a diary from 1758 until a few days before her death in 1807. Parts of the diary, especially those dealing with aspects of revolutionary history have been published in the past. Many pages of her diary treat accounts of health, illness and medical incidents of all sorts, especially in connection with the experiences of her large family. Such sections, hitherto unpublished appear in this volume. Several eighteenth century celebrities including Benjamin Rush, William Shippen, and Philip Syng Physick flit through the pages. The descriptions of small-pox and of the great yellow fever epidemic are graphically described.

Dr. Callahan's new volume, *American Foreign Policy in Canadian Relations* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 576. \$4.00), is a scholarly and authoritative work on the history of American foreign policy in relation to Canada. While it is scarcely suitable for use in high school work teachers will find the book valuable and students of American diplomatic history will find it indispensable.

H. J. A.

Teachers who teach contemporary foreign affairs will need the *Political Handbook of the World, 1937*, edited by Walter H. Mallory (New York: Council on Foreign Relations, 1937. \$2.50). The new edition of this authoritative reference book gives information, much of it not obtainable elsewhere, about the composition of governments, the programs of political parties and their leaders, and the newspapers of many countries.

H. J. A.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Colonies, Trade, and Prosperity. By Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Pamphlets Number 13. Public Affairs Committee, Incorporated, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N.Y. 10 cents. Reduction on quantities.

One in a series of pamphlets on social and economic questions. The pamphlets are authoritative and are based on the research of organizations such as the Brookings Institution, Twentieth Century Fund, Institute of Public Administration, and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

Three Views of Collective Security. By Arthur D. Call. American Peace Society, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. 15 cents.

An address before the Institute of Public Affairs.

National Defense. Edited by Esther C. Brunauer. The Woman's Press, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 30 cents.

An outline of institutions, concepts, and policies by the Study Commission on National Defense, National Committee on the Cause and Cure of War.

The Constitution of the United States. Edited by Arnold J. Zurcher. Oxford Book Company, New York, N.Y. 25 cents.

The text of the Constitution with a detailed clause-by-clause analysis by Philip Dorf.

The Tragedy of Spain. By Rudolf Rocker. Freie Arbeiter Stimme, 45 West Seventeenth Street, New York, N.Y. 15 cents.

An account of the factors involved in the Spanish civil war.

Railway Literature for Young People. Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington, D.C. Free to schools.

A bibliographical guide listing about 150 books, booklets, and periodicals suitable for pupils from the elementary grades through the secondary school on subjects relating to railway transportation, past and present.

Youth, A World Problem. By W. Thacher Winslow. Foreword by Aubrey Williams. National Youth Administration, Washington, D.C. 25 cents.

An attempt to present an unbiased account of what various countries are doing to meet the youth situation.

The Birth of America. By Camillus E. Branchi. The Vigo Press, 2 Rector Street, New York, N.Y.

A study of historical evidence upon the date on which Columbus discovered America.

The Teaching and Supervision of Economics in Secondary Schools. By Eugene B. Riley. Edwards Brothers, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan. \$2.60.

A comprehensive study of the teaching of economics, designed to aid present and prospective teachers with their classroom problems.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Colonial Period of American History: The Settlements. By C. M. Andrews. Vol. III. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937. Pp. xiii, 354. \$4.00.

The third volume in a series on colonial history.

The Old South: Struggles for Democracy. By William E. Dodd. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. vii, 312. Illustrated. Maps. \$3.75.

The first of a series of four volumes on the evolution and decline of the Old South.

Growth of the American Republic. By S. E. Morrison and H. S. Commager, 2 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. xvi, 702; xvi, 695. Maps. Each \$3.00.

A revised and enlarged edition of a work covering the whole period of American history.

Modern Politics and Administration. By Marshall E. Dimock. New York: American Book Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 440. \$3.00.

A study of the creative state.

The Checkered Years. By Mary Dodge Woodward. Edited by Mary Boynton Cowdry. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1937. Pp. 265. Illustrated. \$3.00.

Excerpts from the diary of a woman living on a bonanza farm during the years, 1884 to 1889.

Handbook of Latin American Studies. By a Number of Scholars. Edited by Lewis Hanke. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1937. Pp. xv, 515. \$4.00.

A guide to the material published in 1936 on anthropology, art, economics, education, folklore, geography, government, history, international relations, law, language, and literature.

Great Leveler: The Life of Thaddeus Stevens. By Thomas Frederick Woodley. New York: Stackpole Sons, 1937. Pp. 474. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A biography of Thaddeus Stevens in a new interpretation.

The Marginal Man. By Everett V. Stonequist. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xviii, 228. \$1.60.

A study in personality and culture conflict.

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow. New York: Henry Holt and Company. Pp. xiv, 812, xliii. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A new American history textbook for the secondary school.

James Madison: Builder. By Abbot Emerson Smith. New York: Wilson-Erickson, Inc., 1937. Distributed by Elliot Publishing Company, 33 West 42nd Street, New York. Pp. vii, 356. Illustrated. \$4.00.

A new estimate of the great American statesman, written in commemoration of the hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the completion and signing of the Constitution.

Economic Problems of Modern Society. By John N. Andrews and Rudolf K. Michels. The Ronald Press Company, 1937. Pp. xvi, 798. \$3.75.

An elementary and descriptive treatment intended for a first college course in economics.